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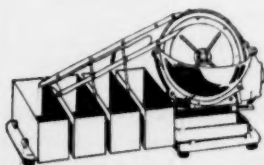
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## THE CATHOLIC SEMINARIES OF CALIFORNIA AS EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS, 1940-1950

By Rev. Finbar Kenneally, O.F.M.\*

### INTRODUCTION

THE PURPOSE OF THIS STUDY was to trace the origin and development of seminaries located in California and devoted to the training of candidates for the Catholic priesthood. Since such institutions had been in existence for centuries prior to their establishment in California, it was found necessary to trace their development from the time they were instituted at the dawn of Christianity until they were reorganized and re-orientated at the Council of Trent, in the sixteenth century.

It was found necessary, too, to advert to the varied circumstances that led to their introduction into California—the breakdown of the Mission system, the establishment of a diocese and the consequent need of obtaining diocesan priests to replace the Franciscan missionaries, and the desire of the superiors of religious orders to train local candidates to share in their work. Some of the seminaries established were intended for the training of priests destined to work in parishes under the jurisdiction of local bishops, and the others were devoted to the more specialized training imparted to members of religious orders. Certain of the seminaries offered the entire course of seminary training, which extends to twelve years and included four years of high school work, four years of college studies (with much time devoted to philosophy), and four years restricted to professional training in theological science. Some, known as “minor” seminaries, offered only the preliminary courses leading up to, but not including, philosophical or theological studies, and others,

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known as "major" seminaries, restricted their courses either to philosophy, or theology, or to both.

#### DIOCESAN SEMINARIES

In 1840 California became a diocese, and among the first projects formulated by the new bishop, Garcia Diego, was the establishment of a seminary for the training of diocesan priests. It was located for some two years at Santa Barbara Mission, and in 1844 was formally opened at Santa Inez Mission. In about ten years it ceased to be a seminary, and only about ten of its graduates became priests. The reasons for its failure were many, including the extreme poverty of the church, the absence of a tradition of formal education in California, and the political and social unrest then prevalent. Of deep interest are the "Constitutions" under which the seminary operated. They were written by Bishop Diego in 1844 and embody ideas of guidance and discipline that would be acclaimed a century later.

The institution at Santa Inez was more than a seminary. It was also a school for boys. In that capacity it functioned for thirty-eight years, and came to an end only in 1882. It was the first school for boys that achieved some degree of permanency in California, and it offered opportunities for the higher education of boys when such facilities were exceedingly limited.

In 1853 a seminary was opened in San Francisco, but once more the time was not opportune. Northern California was just emerging from the excitement of the Gold Rush—the turbulent days when rough and reckless men from every clime arrived in thousands to seek (and often fail to find) a fortune in the gold and silver mines of the West. The seminary ended in failure in 1866. So, too, did a similar institution opened in San Jose in 1883.

Many years passed before Archbishop Riordan in 1898 opened another seminary, St. Patrick's, in the neighborhood of San Francisco. From the date of its opening the new seminary proved to be a success. It was placed under the charge of Sulpician Fathers, a religious group with wide experience in such work. A



steady stream of applicants sought admission year by year. When the time came to celebrate its golden jubilee, six hundred and fifty-four of its students had become priests, and twelve of these had been chosen bishops.

By the year 1924 St. Patrick's was no longer able to accommodate the numbers who sought admission, and in that year an additional seminary, St. Joseph's, was opened a few miles distant. From that date on St. Patrick's became a "major" seminary, restricting its studies to the philosophical and theological branches, while those pertaining to a "minor" seminary were offered at St. Joseph's. By the year 1950 there were two hundred and sixty students enrolled at St. Joseph's, and one hundred and twenty-five at St. Patrick's.

In contrast with San Francisco and its environs, development in other parts of the state was slow. They had not benefited very noticeably from the Gold Rush, or from the unprecedented influx of new settlers. Hence, when failure attended the efforts to maintain a seminary at Santa Inez, in the southern portion of the state, many decades passed before an effort was made to establish a successor to it. At length, in 1926, Bishop Cantwell opened in Los Angeles a "minor" seminary which he placed under the charge of the Vincentian Fathers. The new seminary differed in some respects from seminaries established elsewhere. It was a day school, not a boarding school, as were almost all other seminaries; but the bishop optimistically hoped that the homes from which the seminarians came would supply in great part the character training which a boarding seminary offers.

The success which had followed the opening of St. Patrick's Seminary was duplicated in Los Angeles. In fifteen years the student body rose from thirty-eight to one hundred and sixty, and reached two hundred shortly after. The seminary continued to function as a "minor" one, and its graduates were required to go elsewhere for their philosophical and theological studies. But this came to an end in 1939 when a "major" seminary, St. John's, was opened at Camarillo. The new seminary began with an enrollment of seventy, and soon reached its maximum, which is a



little more than one hundred. As in San Francisco, the two seminaries combine to offer the prescribed twelve-year course.

Located close to the Mexican border is the city of San Diego. In 1936 it became the ecclesiastical center of a new diocese which, until then, had been part of Los Angeles. In the course of about five years the nucleus of a seminary was established in San Diego, but a permanent home was not secured for it until 1948. In that year both a "major" and a "minor" seminary were opened there. At approximately the same time, in the central portion of California, the diocese of Monterey-Fresno opened at Fresno a "minor" seminary, which was the last to be established during the period under review.

#### SEMINARIES OF RELIGIOUS ORDERS

Prior to the annexation of California the Franciscans, who were the missionaries there, made no attempt to establish a seminary for themselves, for until that time missionaries, when needed, were obtained either from Spain or from Mexico. However, shortly after California had become part of the United States they opened a seminary in Santa Barbara in the hope that candidates would be obtained from abroad, and receive their training there. The hope was not realized in full, for in the course of two or three decades the number of candidates received was so small that the seminary was closed in 1885. Some twelve years later they established another, under the title of St. Anthony's Seminary. Success attended this venture, and in a few years it was necessary to add two additional seminaries, one restricted to philosophy and the other to theology.

In the early 1850's the Dominican Order founded a seminary in California. It was located first at Monterey, then at Benecia, and finally at Oakland. Like the first Franciscan seminary, for some decades it depended mostly on candidates from abroad. At no time during the century of its existence did the Dominican seminary have a large student body, for the Dominican Order does not attract large numbers. It is a select group, and its members are expected to be life-long students. In 1948 its seminary was granted the right to confer graduate degrees in theology.



The first Jesuit seminary, established about the year 1854, was located at Santa Clara College. Unlike the seminaries of the other orders, it prospered from the beginning. In 1888 it was transferred to Los Gatos where it is still located and where the classical education of the candidates is conducted. In 1934 the Jesuits opened another seminary at Alma. It is restricted to theological studies and, like the Dominican seminary at Oakland, has the right to confer graduate degrees.

Other important seminaries are those conducted by the Claretians. Their cultural background is Spanish, and, like the Dominicans, they place much emphasis on higher studies. More recent establishments are those of the Salesians who specialize in youth work, the Redemptorists, the Maryknoll Missionaries, the Josephites, and the Capuchins.

#### THE SEMINARY CURRICULUM

In the sixteenth century the Council of Trent reorganized the course of training imparted in the seminaries, and the impact of the Council is obvious to the present day. But seminaries are older than Trent, and older than the medieval universities, for they trace their origin to the beginning of Christendom.

The curriculum of a typical seminary bears evidence of this link with the past; but seminaries are not lifeless institutions, not mere museums. They are vibrant with life. They seek to retain what is valuable from the past, and this they adapt in each generation to new needs as they arise. When the curriculum of a seminary is analysed, what impresses an investigator is the emphasis on religion, the classics, philosophy, and theology.

The *raison d'être* of the seminary is the religious formation of the students. The number of class periods devoted to religion is usually not impressive; it is often less than the number of hours devoted to such subjects as Latin or English. But the entire atmosphere of the seminary is religious, and in addition to the scheduled hours, much time is devoted to it in conferences, discussions, and like activities.

The most notable characteristic of the course in religion as taught in the seminaries prior to about the year 1920 was the



poor quality of the textbooks in use. The book most commonly used was Deharbe's Catechism—an abstract condensation of basic doctrines presented in the form of Question and Answer. The textbook for the first year differed from that for the last year mainly in the number of questions and in the length of the answers. The matter treated was substantially the same.

As the opening decades of the present century progressed there was severe criticism of the textbooks in use, and in 1918 the New Code of Canon Law prescribed that religion should henceforth be taught "in a manner adapted to the age and intelligence of the students." Within a few years copies of Deharbe's books disappeared, and texts more in harmony with the standards of modern pedagogy, and better adapted to the age and development of the students, took their place. By the year 1950 there was a wide variety of books in religion in use, and a wide range of collateral reading available.

Seminaries came into being when classical culture was predominant in Europe. They remained loyal to that tradition whether they were part of the early Cathedral Schools, or of the medieval universities. The seminaries as reorganized by Trent pursued classical studies very systematically, for they were much influenced by the Jesuit "Ratio Studiorum." During the century with which this study deals the highest ecclesiastical superiors repeatedly exhorted seminarians to acquire a mastery of the classics. And these exhortations bore fruit. Latin was so emphasized in the early seminaries of California that for a time it eclipsed all other studies. All seminary records agree that up to the period of the First World War the seminaries were homes of classical culture. From that date on, however, there was a lessening in the number of hours devoted to the classics, for provision had to be made in the curriculum for newer subjects such as science, modern languages, social studies—for these were assuming a new importance.

As the hours devoted to Latin and Greek decreased there was a re-evaluation of the classics as part of the professional training to be imparted in a seminary. Writers in increasing numbers



pointed out that the cultural tradition to be fostered is not exclusively the pagan classics of Greece and Rome; that these were transmuted by Christian thought in the early centuries of our era and fused into a new and coherent unity known as Christian literature; and that such writings should be regarded as Christian classics and worthy of a place of honor in the seminary curriculum.

It is obvious that many of the seminaries have been influenced by this criticism. Some, in their concluding courses in Latin, offer mainly the writings of Sts. Augustine, Jerome, Gregory and others of that type, for they find such Christian classics more inspiring, more germane, and more flexible to meet modern tastes and needs.

Seminary administrators readily admit that during the concluding decades of the century under review there has been a decline in the standard of achievement in the classics, and that this decline is out of proportion to the number of hours devoted to it. This they attribute to the gradual disappearance from the American educational system of respect for the classical heritage, as well as a notable tendency on the part of American youth to give preference to courses that offer something more than cultural values.

Seminarians of California were required by ecclesiastical law to study English so that they might be able to speak and write it "correctly, fluently, and gracefully." The oldest seminary catalogue gives the English courses as taught about the beginning of this century. The emphasis during the first year was on grammar and composition, and for the more advanced courses pride of place was given to the English classical writers, whether in prose or in poetry, with special emphasis on the oratorical writers. American writers received scarcely any recognition prior to the First World War, but assumed an important role from then on.

The art of oratory was held in high esteem until the present century was well advanced; then the emphasis was transferred to such subjects as creative writing, script writing, journalism,



and the preparation and presentation of radio and television programs.

The Council of Trent made it obligatory for all seminarians to complete at least two years of philosophy prior to the beginning of their studies in theology. Around the middle of the nineteenth century, however, the philosophy which was taught lacked unity and vitality; it was eclectic. The seminaries of the Dominicans seem to have fared better, for they adhered consistently to the philosophical principles associated with the name of St. Thomas Aquinas, himself a Dominican. In 1879 Pope Leo XIII made the philosophical teaching of St. Thomas obligatory in all seminaries. This decree, by focussing attention on St. Thomas, stimulated interest in the wide and hitherto neglected field of medieval philosophy. This led to a renewed interest in Plato, Aristotle, and St. Augustine, for medieval philosophy was inspired in great measure by them. In the course of a few decades other schools of thought, once popular in medieval universities, won admirers in the seminaries, and the Holy See was at pains to make it clear that such systems of philosophy should be welcomed.

The seminaries were not slow to avail themselves of this freedom. Those who departed most notably from Thomism were the Franciscans. Many distinct schools of Franciscan philosophy had flourished in the Middle Ages, schools that owed their origin to such Franciscan teachers as St. Bonaventure, Duns Scotus, Ockham, and so on. Beginning in the year 1940, the Franciscan seminary at San Luis Rey offered a general course in the principles of Franciscan philosophy, followed later by a specialized course in Scotistic philosophy.

At the beginning of the period under review philosophy, as taught in the seminaries, was in a moribund condition. There was variety, but not enough vitality to give unity. At the end of the period there was variety, too; but the variety in this instance was due to the exuberance of life which the system possessed. In the 1850's Thomism was the sole philosophy taught in the Dominican seminary, and it was taught as if philosophy



had remained static since the Middle Ages. In 1950 Thomism was still the sole philosophy taught in that seminary, but it was a Thomism taught in the light of all later philosophical developments, and notably enriched in the process.

At the apex of the seminary course, and immediately following the study of philosophy, is the course in theology. In accordance with the decrees of the Council of Trent, a minimum of four years had to be devoted to it by every candidate for the priesthood. The basic theological studies have remained the same through many centuries. They are Sacred Scripture, dogmatic theology, moral theology, canon law, church history, with pastoral and ascetical theology usually added. The content of these studies, however, has been enriched with every new development in theological research. The most important changes affecting the development of theological studies can be traced to the year 1931. In that year Pope Pius XI issued a decree which reorganized the graduate department in theological seminaries and universities. It defined the nature and scope of such studies, differentiated between what was fundamental and what was of secondary importance in them, and established standards and norms to be observed in such schools. Although such a decree affected only a small number of seminaries directly, it affected many indirectly, for it was an official declaration of aims and objectives.

A decree issued by the Third Plenary Council of Baltimore made it mandatory for American seminarians to study, in addition to the vernacular, one modern language. Different seminaries from the beginning made different choices—Portuguese, French, German; but diocesan seminaries in the southern part of the state invariably chose Spanish, for among the new settlers in that part of the state were some hundreds of thousands of Spanish speaking people. Thus, the course in Spanish offered at St. John's Seminary in the 1940's had a three-fold aim: to enable the student to acquire a competent knowledge of the Spanish language, to acquaint him with the pastoral aspects of Mexican immigration, and by means of conducted tours in Mex-



ico to familiarize him with the historical and cultural background of the Mexican people.

A number of religious orders, at least in the opening decades of the present century, belonged to different racial groups, and made it their immediate aim to minister to the members of that racial or linguistic group. Typical of these were the Franciscans who, in the closing years of the nineteenth century, established a seminary at Santa Barbara. They were of German birth or extraction, selected German as the additional modern language to be studied, and taught it with a thoroughness that made it a second vernacular for the seminarians. The other religious orders followed the same principle. From the close of the First World War, however, such languages for the most part had but little functional value in California, for American immigration laws at that time drastically reduced the number of European immigrants who might enter the country. In the course of the succeeding decade or two such seminaries gradually followed the example of the diocesan seminaries and concentrated on Spanish.

The physical sciences have now been assigned a reasonable proportion of the class time available in seminaries; but, as should be expected, science is a new addition to the seminary curriculum, and for many years its right to recognition was challenged. Some general notions of science were imparted during the course in philosophy in the seminaries, for such notions were essential for an understanding of that portion of philosophy known as cosmology. Prior to about 1910, however, there were but few attempts to give a systematic course in science; but in that respect the seminaries did not differ very much from the prevailing attitude towards science in other California schools. Even when science began to be taught, there is clear evidence of the reluctance on the part of seminaries to admit it to an equal standing with other subjects. In part, no doubt, this was due to the agnostic and materialistic principles of such advocates of science as Huxley and Spencer, but in great part it was due to a presentiment that the study of science would give rise to a mode



of thinking, a standard of judgment, and a scale of values that would be a poor preparation for the study of philosophy and theology. Such fears, however, soon disappeared, and by the year 1920 or earlier science was recognized as an integral part of the seminary curriculum.

Like the physical sciences, the social sciences as a distinct branch of studies were later additions to the seminary curriculum. Like the sciences, too, their arrival was prepared for long in advance. Social problems have too many intimate connections with the practical side of religion to be ignored in a seminary curriculum, and certain aspects of the social question were usually studied as part of the course in ethics and in moral theology. However, the true magnitude of the problem was not grasped until the economic crisis of 1929. From that date on different seminaries began to concentrate more and more on different aspects of the question: Courses in economics and sociology were quickly added, and then the more specialized problems, such as labor-management relations, distribution, etc. Other seminaries pay more attention to such problems as alcoholism, drug addiction, delinquency, etc. Many seminaries invite experts in social work to participate in discussions with the students, and "workshops" in social problems, attended by students from different seminaries, are occasionally held.

Pedagogy is another subject that grew in importance. Some elements of it were part of the seminary curriculum from the beginning, for the teaching of religion is one of the main duties of a priest, and instruction in that art (commonly known as "catechetics") was normally included in the curriculum. Only gradually did the course in the art of teaching become better defined, and its subdivisions better differentiated. The most valuable directives appeared in a letter issued by Pope Pius XI in 1929, and entitled "The Christian Education of Youth." This was followed in 1944 by a formal decree which specified the particular branches which should henceforth be taught as part of seminary training. These branches were mainly the philosophy of education, child psychology, Church-State relationship in education, and similar



subjects. Two of the seminaries, St. Patrick's and San Luis Rey, offer extensive courses in education for many of their graduates engage in teaching, and such courses are part of the requisite professional training.

These subjects do not comprise the sum-total of all the studies that make up the normal seminary curriculum; but they are the main constituents of it. Seminaries, however, are more than schools that have adopted a particular kind of curriculum. Rather, they are professional schools where, as in West Point and Annapolis, a specific kind of training is imparted with a specific purpose in view. Hence, much importance is attached to character formation, and as a consequence to the guidance program which is indispensable in every seminary. Thus, in accordance with ecclesiastical law, the person who acts as student counselor must be "of blameless morals and great prudence . . . who will make it his special office to look after the (character) formation of the students, a person who is both competent and a specialist in (such) matters as the other professors are in their subjects." Guidance is an easier process in seminaries than in similar schools elsewhere, for the student body is usually small, select, and somewhat homogeneous. There is, in addition, a genuine rapport between student and director.

Finally, seminaries reveal a wide variety of extra-curricular activities. Some of these are social, some have a religious significance, and many of them are basically intellectual and cultural.

#### THE CONTRIBUTION OF THE SEMINARIES

The primary purpose of the seminaries is the education and training of young men so that at the conclusion of the prescribed courses they may become priests, either in the diocese or the religious order of their choice. In the opening decades of the period under review seminary administrators had to face many disappointments. Candidates were slow to apply, and quick to leave, and the number who persevered to the end was relatively small.



Those who are ordained are not the only alumni who have had the advantage of the type of training offered by a seminary. They are, in fact, a minority. So exacting are the requirements of a seminary that only about twenty per cent of all who engage in seminary studies are ultimately ordained. Thus, in 1950 there were approximately two thousand priests in California. The vast majority of these had received their professional training in one or other of the seminaries of the state. Hence, there were in addition approximately ten thousand laymen who had once been seminarians who, in that capacity, had shared with those who later became priests all the educational benefits offered by a seminary.

But the contribution of the seminaries is not to be determined solely by the size of the student body, extensive though that was if the aggregate for more than a century is taken into account. Of far greater importance is the quality of the work accomplished, and the training imparted. An officers' training school may have an insignificant enrollment if compared with a camp for enlisted men; and the same is true of seminaries, for the relationship is similar.

The seminaries have contributed both directly and indirectly to the culture of the West. Such are their aims and objectives, however, that their primary contributions must be regarded as mainly intangible. As there is no scale by which one may determine the benefits that accrue from sound mental health, physical well being, and similar benefits, neither is there a standard by which one may assess the benefits of a deepened spiritual experience, a more satisfying philosophy of life, and a fuller participation in a rich cultural heritage. Nevertheless, it is possible to focus attention on some of the more obvious contributions of the seminaries in their role as educational institutions.

In the foregoing chapter the seminary curriculum was discussed. Its characteristics are obvious. Although it is a curriculum chosen for a specific purpose, it is, nevertheless, broad and comprehensive, and in it religion holds a dominant position. This is in accordance with the ideals of Pope Pius XI when he



admonished teachers in all Catholic schools to take as their objective the education of "man, whole and entire, with all his faculties natural and supernatural, such as right reason and Revelation show him to be." Hence, the seminaries are not content to impart a training that is purely intellectual. They place emphasis in particular on a formation that is moral and spiritual; and the gold-seekers of 'forty-nine, and the adventurers who followed them, stood peculiarly in need of lessons in spiritual values.

There is, then, much emphasis on character formation, and in different seminaries there are different ideals and objectives. In the Jesuit seminaries the students, taking as their model the soldier saint, Ignatius, are encouraged to esteem obedience, discipline, and a tradition of loyalty and self-sacrifice. In the Franciscan seminaries the ideal is medieval knighthood. Order and discipline are based on personal loyalty, and the atmosphere is one of friendliness and artless simplicity. And so with the other seminaries.

Emphasis on character formation was not a later development in the seminaries of California. In the "Constitutions" of the first seminary, which was located at Santa Inez, it was stipulated that "the principal aim of the superiors and teachers . . . shall be to gain the good will of their subjects . . . suggesting to them continually ideas and sentiments of honor, and thus bringing them with love to the fulfilment of their duties."

In the field of academic education, as the last section makes clear, the contribution made by the seminaries must be regarded as notable. It was the aim of the seminaries to blend into one the traditional Spanish culture of the West, the classical culture of Greece and Rome, the Christian culture that had molded Europe, and the nascent culture of young America. What was deemed most valuable, however, was the culture of Greece and Rome, and the Christian tradition of Europe. In 1941, in an incisive article, Walter Lippmann, one of America's most influential thinkers and writers, eloquently advocated as an ideal for American schools a system of education that was almost identical with



the high school and college departments of a typical California seminary.

Not many years later, approval for a tentative plan of education that had much in common with the system traditional in the high school and college departments of seminaries came from an unexpected source. In 1953 B. Lamar Johnson, the head of a commission appointed to enquire into the operation of junior colleges in California, placed among the primary objectives of a sound general education the development of a set of sound moral and spiritual values by which the student may guide his life. He quoted with approval the assertion of Walter Reuther, the American labor leader, that the "development of competent technicians is infinitely less important than the development of good people."

Another contribution of the seminaries is in the domain of cultural interrelations. By reason of its military strength and the magnitude of its foreign trade, America has assumed a dominant role in world affairs. Yet, it is a position for which America is not well prepared. Americans as a rule lack facility in foreign languages, and are often wanting in proper appreciation for the culture of foreign countries. In great measure this is a consequence of the national effort through many decades to absorb the immigrant, and to build up a homogeneous American way of life.

From the beginning, the seminaries have been a meeting place for those who differ in race, language, and cultural ties. Yet, in pursuit of common objectives and guided by prudent directors, all live in harmony and mutual appreciation; and the group as a whole becomes enriched by the very diversity of those who compose it. Certain seminaries have made it their policy to offer facilities to seminarians from abroad, so that the native born American students, by daily association with them, may thus master the language, culture, and folkways of foreign countries. Other seminaries send their students on conducted tours abroad with the same objective in mind. The direct benefits that accrue when such techniques are used are obvious, for they constitute



an immensely rewarding experience for the students concerned. The indirect results, however, have a much deeper significance, even if they may seem less apparent.

Among the millions who sought a home in California in the course of the century under review, many came from abroad. Their language, customs, and traditions were different. In such circumstances the problem of adjusting to a new way of life is certain to be difficult. It becomes easier if the immigrant makes the acquaintance of some one who speaks the language and appreciates the culture of the country whence he came. In this process, which is one of re-education of the immigrant, the priest often plays a role of deep significance, even if his part in drama is usually not an obvious one. Yet, it is a role which he played since California became a state, and it is one of the important results of seminary training.

As has been indicated already, guidance is an essential part of seminary training. It begins in the freshman year, and ends only when the student has become a priest. However, the seminarian in turn has been trained to guide others, and much of the life of every priest is devoted to it as he attempts to rehabilitate those whose "days and nights are spent hating the world in which they live, mistrusting their fellow-men, and showing an inconsistency, inefficiency, and irresponsibility baffling the best efforts" of those who try to help them. Priests, however, are not the only individuals who turn to good account the training they received in the seminaries. Many who were not ordained, on leaving the seminary select teaching as their profession, and in the public schools many who were once seminarians serve as student counselors.

A notable trend in American education is the tendency of the smaller college either to disappear, or to grow into a larger one. Many view this tendency with concern, for they are conscious of the immense contribution once made by such colleges, and they are fearful of the effects of mass production within halls that should be dedicated no less to character formation than to growth in learning. The seminaries have all the advantages of the



smaller colleges: tradition, academic atmosphere, a select student body, rapport between teacher and student. While seminaries last the memory of the small college will survive.

There are other ways in which the seminaries exercised a notable influence on the educational life of the state. Thus, in the year 1950 there were approximately two hundred and fifty priests, graduates of these seminaries, employed as full-time teachers in California. These were assisted by approximately sixty seminarians who, at the conclusion of their college course and prior to their ordination, had been assigned to teach for a three-year period. In addition, some seven hundred other priests filled brief teaching assignments each week of the school year. Priests were managers of three hundred and forty elementary schools with a total enrollment of one hundred and seventeen thousand children, of ninety-two high schools with an attendance of twenty-four thousand students, and of eleven colleges and universities with more than ten thousand two hundred students.

In the early 'thirties of this century, as we have seen, there was a re-evaluation of the seminary curriculum in view of the national and international tensions of the time. Around that date, too, something similar was taking place in the public school system of California. In 1934 representatives of more than seventy organizations, after holding a series of state-wide conferences, issued a "Charter for Public Education in California." The Charter is of deep interest for it expresses in precise form the basic principles of a program of education as understood by civic and educational leaders of the day. The principles they enunciated have much in common with those that regulate the conduct of seminaries. The Charter, in effect, was an implied commendation of the seminary system of education.

#### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The story of California's seminaries resembles the story of California's early days: it deals with "the coming of the *padre*"—not from the portals of Monterey or San Diego as in the eighteenth century, but from the sanctuaries of the state's far-flung semi-



naries. Hence, the aim of this study was to trace the rise and development of each seminary—and in a few cases, too, to record their fall.

The world did not remain static during the period under review. Vast changes took place in the economic and social and religious framework, and these were reflected in the seminary curriculum. Religion, the classics, philosophy, and theology remained throughout the core subjects of the curriculum, but even these received a new orientation. New subjects were added, such as the physical and social sciences. Old subjects, such as English, history, and modern languages, acquired a new importance.

In 1850 there was but one seminary in California, a weak and frail diocesan seminary with two professors and scarcely a dozen students. In 1950 there were seven such seminaries in friendly rivalry with one another, and with fourteen others conducted by Franciscans, Dominicans, Jesuits, and members of half a dozen other religious orders. The professors numbered more than one hundred and fifty, and the combined student body exceeded sixteen hundred. Many were housed in some of California's famed Missions, and all seminarians shared the hope of one day following in the footsteps of the pioneer padres who, in surroundings incredibly more difficult

"Swung Christ's fragrant censers long ago,  
And wrought in beauty as they dreamed of God."

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More than 43,000 foreign students are now resident in American educational institutions. More than 10,000 Americans are studying, doing research or are on technical missions overseas.

Last summer, 45 U.S. firms received 75 students from abroad through the International Association for the Exchange of Students for Technical Experience, while 58 American students of science and engineering trained in 13 European countries. In 1956, over 2,500 industries in 22 countries participating in IAESTE's program provided training for more than 5,700 visiting students from other member countries.



## "OPERATION GREAT BOOKS" ON THE NORTHERN FRONT

By Henry G. Fairbanks \*

IT'S FUNNY WHAT A GUY WILL READ to kill time when I pinned down by a barrage or stalemated by a siege. Alexander the Great read *The Iliad* holed up before Babylon. C.S. Lewis, the subaltern, read G.K. Chesterton after Ypres. And I, by dugout candlelight, have been reading old dispatches from "Shaef." There's one coded *America* on the general deployment of curricular units for liberal arts warfare. It's full of pretty sound combat tips: one by a couple of old field soldiers, Colonels Campbell and Hartnett;<sup>1</sup> another by a Major Moloney that reads faintly like a field manual for the crossbow;<sup>2</sup> and a third by Lt. Col. Cunningham, which tempers G-3 strategy with the saving grace of tactical knowledge.<sup>3</sup> Each of them is rubber-stamped "Field Marshal Dawson, Supreme Headquarters Allied Educational Force," right across the top where you can't miss it. And so are others direct from the Marshall himself, coded *Commonweal*<sup>4</sup> and *America*.<sup>5</sup>

I must have read them a dozen times—with the barest minimum of scoffs expected of the respectable combat soldier. For they're good stuff, even if they do come down from

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<sup>1</sup> Rev. James M. Campbell and Rev. Robert C. Hartnett, S.J., "The Dawson Challenge: a Discussion," *America*, XCIII (April 16, 1955), 65-76; 88-90.

<sup>2</sup> Michael F. Moloney, "The Liberal Arts: A Plan of Action," *ibid.*, 77-78.

<sup>3</sup> Rev. W.F. Cunningham, C.S.C., "Christian Culture in General Education," *ibid.*, 63-65.

<sup>4</sup> Christopher Dawson, "Education and Christian Culture," *Commonweal*, LIX (December 4, 1953), 216-220.

<sup>5</sup> Christopher Dawson, "Today's Challenge to U.S. Colleges," *America*, (September 12, 1954), 537-541.



Headquarters with the faint perfume of the WAC typist still clinging to their pages. They make a fellow think; and, as the "Troop Information" line has it, "A Thinking Soldier is a Good Soldier."

#### VICTORY NEVER JUST OVER RIDGE

But, take it from a John who's been on the line for years without relief, a soldier in this Battle of the Books is neither thinking nor good if he thinks victory just over the next ridge. G-2 reports and S-2 reconnaissance warn us to make no sweeping claims of major gains for resurgent liberal arts. Sure, tactical successes have established beach-heads on the coasts of Fortress Pragmatism. Divisions from Columbia, Chicago, St. John's (Annapolis), Catholic, Harvard, and Notre Dame have joined in pushing back the zones of Chaos and Old Night. Commando raids and guerrilla action by other groups have harassed the No-Man's Land of Technology, while fifth columns (well to the right of a Vocational Center) have planted time bombs and boobytraps under the curricula of academic redoubts throughout the country. But no conclusive victory for Liberal Arts is in sight. We have won a few skirmishes locally. We have neither conducted a successful campaign nor annihilated large-scale concentrations of enemy power.

Under these circumstances consolidation of ground won and unit regrouping seems to be the next step rather than overextension of "Operation Attack." With the Liberal Arts legions deployed over so ragged a front, and often swallowed up in pockets of resistance well inside enemy territory, it is impossible to see the whole battleground from any one point of view—even directing fire from the tower of the Yale Library or from an observation post made by piling *The Making of Europe* on *Understanding Europe* and both on *Religion and the Rise of Western Culture*.

In the limited holding action of which I am a part (an outpost in the frozen North where Montcalm and Amherst once



jousted)<sup>6</sup> I have all I can handle to maintain the perimeter defense of a company commander of Humanities.

It's true that I have to defend a salient slicing deep into enemy territory. It's likewise true that I'm kept posted on the over-all plans of my Battalion C.O. (Lt. Col. Dean) and on the disposition of two companies of reserves ("Phil" and "Theo" Companies) assigned to take over the center when it seems favorable to order a general advance. But, though we call them "shock troops," those reserves are only a cadre of what they ought to be before D-Day is warranted on this sector. So I'm hoping that neither the C.O. nor Marshal Dawson makes the mistake of overestimating capabilities and ordering a Pickett's charge at this juncture. We can hold on, indefinitely. We can foray and sortie a little. But we can't risk overextension by committing ourselves to all-out engagement without proper support. And, with a native population in our rear lately hostile and hardly yet *simpatico*, abandonment of positions for a push seems ill-advised.

#### FORWARD UNDER GUIDON OF HUMANITIES

Let me tell you something about our position and "T.O." Humanities Company is up front now because when orders came to advance after regrouping at Curriculum Headquarters our light armed units got moving with "the fustest and the mostest." We made a natural combat team—literature, history and fine arts platoons. It didn't take us long to be welded under the guidon of Humanities. Together we had a fire power that none of us had separately. It was an outfit of veterans, hard-

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<sup>6</sup> St. Michael's College for men, with an enrollment of 750, is conducted by the Society of St. Edmund in Winooski, Vermont. Its revised curriculum (A.B. degree for all concentrations) requires a three-year Humanities course, three hours a week, all students, as well as a three-year "core" course for all in Philosophy and Theology. The Humanities program, entitled "The Life and Thought of Western Man," traces the evolution of the West by parallel presentation of period history with period literature and arts. Between sophomore and senior sequences thirty-six major representative books are studied, ranging from the Bible, the Plays of Sophocles (ancient history), *The Prince*, *Dr. Faustus* (Reinassance), to *The Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man*, and *Death of a Salesman* (twentieth century).



ened by campaigns on other fronts; but its strength was mainly in rifle platoons, supplemented by a weapons platoon. Superb high ground where prepared positions and an unobstructed field of fire made short-range, point-target armament effective. At this point morale is high; ammunition, apparently inexhaustible. Rations, brought up by pack board from the translations dump, are somewhat watery; but, for all the gripes, sufficiently nourishing. And our Fine Arts Platoon (the last to come up) is a built-in SSO outfit that can use its carbines, too.

But junior officers are hard to come by. All the replacements sent up from Dean's C.P. are hardy enough. They can assemble an M-1 in the dark, or fire an LMG from the hip. But it's a rare one who has more than "a platoon view" at first. Ninety-day wonders with a "squad view" are invariably the first casualties, so we don't worry much about them. They just silhouette themselves against the horizon with fatal prominence.

Replacements in the ranks are less a problem. Naturally, new men gripe about the long hours under fire. But I've noticed that even the saddest sack has had some preparation for our style combat back in Basic. Matter of fact, most of them adjust pretty fast (something I can't say for the draftees still drilling with "Phil" and "Theo" Companies). My main problem is keeping big heads from outgrowing helmets in the thrill of combat, or from sneering at "rear-echelon jokers" still doing push-ups and "columns right." Pride in outfit is one thing. But this paratrooper mentality is something else.

#### LOOKING LONGINGLY TO THE REAR

So I keep reminding them that they're still dogfaces with a foxhole perspective and that badge on their chest reads Combat Infantryman, not Congressional Medal. But I'm secretly proud that nobody wants to transfer out of the outfit, though I keep looking longingly to the rear, straining to see signs of relief moving up from "Phil" and "Theo" where they pack the Sunday punch of water-cooled m.g.'s and the 105 howitzers. I want those guys like Joe Dimaggio—on our side. Meanwhile, till



they come in off the range and into the line, I hope that Marshal Dawson doesn't give another spin in his swivel chair and switch more colored pins on his wall map back in "Shaef." I got a feeling he relies too heavily on the armor and speed of his crack Christian Classics Corps, effective enough over the solid Roman roads and long-tilled European plains where he has dazzled us all with past maneuvers. But up here, where the foot soldier must slog along through mud or snow, rookie or vet will tell you: "It all depends on the situation and the terrain."

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The second annual fall meeting of the Catholic Fine Arts Society was held at Ladycliff College, Highland Falls, New York, in November. Plans are being made for a spring meeting, April 26, at Cathedral High School, New York City, and for a summer workshop at Ladycliff.

The first B.A. degrees awarded nuns at the University of British Columbia were received in November by two teaching sisters.

Very Rev. Edward J. O'Donnell, S.J., president of Marquette University, it one one of three new members elected to the executive committee of the American Council on Education at its meeting in November.

The centenary of the founding of St. Bonaventure University will be observed with a year-long celebration beginning in the fall of 1957. Chartered by the New York State Board of Regents as St. Bonaventure's College in 1875, the institution became a university on July 21, 1950, when its charter was amended.

The Diocese of Dallas-Fort Worth expended \$12,607,000 for new property, construction, and improvements in the four-year period between October, 1952, and September, 1956. This represents an expenditure of \$126 for every one of the hundred thousand Catholics in the Diocese.



## SOME EDUCATIONAL TRENDS IN SCHOOL ACTIVITIES

By Sister Mary Xavier, O.S.U. \*

THERE ARE NEW DEVELOPMENTS constantly in all fields of human endeavor—in communication, medicine, science, in household inventions. There are likewise new developments in the field of education. What is of moment in the above statements is that while most people accept without hesitation every new gadget which will make life more comfortable and entertaining yet this same group look askance at new trends in education. It is true that the public's interest in education is healthy, yet in many instances their investigations are only superficial—they fail to look far enough back or ahead in order that they might worthily appraise the philosophy of modern education. As a result, this group fails to comprehend that new processes in the schools are neither sudden nor revolutionary but rather the gradual blending of the old with the new. Because some have not kept up with this evolution they awaken suddenly to see the pattern of education changed. Then they become alarmed. To many, a review of the history of education in the last fifty years of our country would prove beneficial.

### AWAKENING TO EXTRA-CURRICULAR NEEDS

At the beginning of the twentieth century there was a hazy awakening in American schools to the fact that its traditional curriculum was not satisfying the needs of youth for life. This realization first occurred to college students and found its outlet in the organization of various clubs and physical activities. Because the educational philosophy of that time did not recog-

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nize a justification of these needs, all such enterprises were carried on after school hours by the students and went unrecognized by the teachers. But like the tree growing beside running waters, recognition of school activities grew rapidly.

To be sure, there was a reason why the extra-curriculum program found a fertile soil at the turn of the century and has gradually grown to tremendous dimensions a half century after its beginning. Before that time there was little need for such a program in the schools of our country. Health and physical activity were cared for in rural outdoor life and farm work; furthermore, society at that time was not nearly so complex. But the growth of industries along with political and social changes brought more people to the city. There was considerable prosperity and more leisure. As a result not only colleges but particularly high schools opened their doors to phenomenally increasing numbers of students. There were 22,000 high school graduates in our country in 1890; 250,000 in 1925 and 1,055,586 in 1952. Therefore, due to the vast change in our country's economic and social status, to the increase in the schools' number and variety of students, the high school schedule especially, which had heretofore been geared to fit a select few, had to be changed in order to suit a wider range of intellects and interests.

#### BROADENED CONCEPT OF EDUCATION

As a result of the foregoing influences, as early as the first decade of the present century, educators themselves felt the necessity of re-evaluating the school's offerings. Shortly after this time *some* teachers also began to realize and admit the worth of extra-curricular activities; others endured them without displaying any enthusiasm for them; still another group adopted a policy of hostility labeling extra-curricular activities with such epithets as "menaces to school work," "crime breeders," and "fun fests." These significant expressions became the slogan of all those opposed to anything outside of traditional subject matter in the school.

A vital question and one which has caused and is still causing



much controversy is: "Why should the school undertake to supervise such activities?" Because, at present, the school is the only establishment that contacts all children. And so society has come to expect the school to develop the education of the whole child—intellectually, socially, and physically.<sup>1</sup>

Somewhere around the turn of the quarter of this present century a new administrative attitude toward physical and socializing activities was awakened. This period marks the time in the history of our educational system when extra-curricular activities were not only fostered but also became an integral part of the school schedule. This healthy change of opinion started when educators began to recognize the fact that such activities have distinctive educative value in themselves. As a result, the appellation "curricular" or "co-curricular" replaced the name "extra curricular" by which they had heretofore been known. So curricular or co-curricular activities have come to be known as those activities which have definite educational values, and for which the school schedules a definite time, for which there is a well-defined course of study, a body of literature, and for which the school gives credit toward graduation.

Now there must be a justification for everything the school places on its curriculum. Over and above all the objectives which we will enumerate there is the primary objective of the Catholic school to foster love of God and man in our students. Therefore, anything undertaken by the Catholic Church has of necessity this goal—the salvation of souls. Since man is a composite of body and soul, the body helping the soul to love and serve God, it is without doubt a function of the Catholic school to equip students for Christian social living in the age and civilization in which they find themselves. Furthermore, since the Catholic school has the avowed purpose of developing the whole child, it cannot neglect these important phases of his growth—his social and physical development.

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<sup>1</sup> Incidentally, our public schools are neglecting a very urgent need of youth—his spiritual development. Christian educators are cognizant of this fact and it disturbs many of them.



## NECESSITY OF EXTRA-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

Many of us have known brilliant students who easily mastered the so-called hard subjects in school and yet are now real or apparent failures in life. There are various clues to their lack of success. In the first place, social acceptability is an important asset in a person's quest for happiness and success; moreover, personal qualifications such as enthusiasm, dependability, leadership, initiative, self-reliance, and co-operativeness are equally as important as book knowledge for a successful life. Where are these qualities to be developed? In the home, church, and school. One of the prime reasons for curricular activities in school is to offer the student a means of developing these vitally important assets.

Can anyone doubt the educationally sound basis of activities which make it their aim to develop these traits in youth? Of course, there is fun and enjoyment involved in the participation of these activities. What is more they not only afford students enjoyment now but they will also help them enjoy life more in later years by furnishing them suitable leisure time. Many of these activities likewise offer preparation for their future life work.

While co-curricular activities are attractive to students on all levels yet they hold special attraction and significance for adolescents in high school. This age level has a strong tendency to form social groups of diverse types. Accordingly, this gregarious urge leads them to form organizations—good and bad. In either case the effects of their activities leave an impression on their characters and *on society*. When they are given a chance at wholesome pastimes they hardly have time and energy for vandalism. Those who decry juvenile delinquency are sometimes those who want to unduly limit school and pupil-initiated activities. The pent up energy of youth needs an outlet!

Although the co-curriculum program is wide and varied, yet most of its projects may be pigeonholed into these groupings:



1. Athletic: Basketball, football, baseball, soft ball, track, calisthenics, etc.
2. Religious: Catholic Students' Mission Crusade, Good Counsel Club, Catholic Action Club, Sodality of the Blessed Virgin, Holy Name Society, Future Priests Clubs, etc.
3. Literary and Forensic: School Publications, Book Clubs, Debating.
4. Arts: Dramatic, Glee, Orchestra.
5. Civic: Student Council, Civic Club, Boy Scout, Girl Scout, Assembly.
6. Educational: History, Science, Latin, French, Spanish and 4-H Clubs.
7. Social: Planning of parties, dances, teas.

It is easily discernible from the above list that a given school could hardly sponsor all the activities named. A recommendation, it would seem, is that a school attempt to sponsor at least one out of each heading and that one most adapted to the student body of a particular school and its needs. Not that each student can belong to one of each but rather that there is a scope for a choice. Their first choice, to be sure, will be an athletic activity.

#### ATHLETIC ACTIVITIES

The major source of activities is athletics. In an average high school it is scarcely necessary to encourage athletic sportsmanship. It is typical of our American way of life—this unanimous interest in sports. Parents and students are sold on sports and most teachers not only enjoy but also realize the intrinsic value of physical education which has its main outlet in athletic sports. Plato's statement of "a strong mind in a strong body" is still applicable and every list of the purposes and goals of education includes the objectives of health and fitness. The inclusion of this aim of education presupposes that the schools give a time and opportunity for the development of this objective. Consequently as an aid in meeting the need for bodily development the school offers physical education programs with activities too numerous to mention.



All thinking people realize that important potential for success and happiness—physical fitness. In his conference on "National Fitness" President Eisenhower's plea is that "our young people must be physically as well as mentally and spiritually prepared for American citizenship."<sup>2</sup> The President likewise states that there be a new nationwide orientation toward physical education not only on the part of parents and the public but within the school itself.

Parallel with our Nation's desire for a PE program let us see what our present Holy Father, well informed and articulate in every field of human interest, has to say concerning the place of sports in the life of a Christian. In his noteworthy address, speaking to all Christian youth he says:

... the Church cannot neglect, as a work outside her proper sphere, the care of the body and physical culture, as though only things purely religious and exclusively spiritual were within her competence; that there are natural and Christian virtues without which sport could not properly develop, but would inevitably degenerate into a form of closed materialism, an end in itself; that Christian principles and norms, when applied to sport, open up to it loftier horizons, lighted up even with rays of mystic light.<sup>3</sup>

Nevertheless, His Holiness expatiates that athletics is "a field of action where it is easy to neglect the paramount values of the spirit, over-exalt the values of the body, and forget essential duties to God and family."<sup>4</sup> Consequently, Catholic schools should carry on athletics according to Christian principles.

Our Holy Father also states that he believes spiritual strength can be developed through sports:

Technique, in sport, just as in the arts, should not obstruct the development of the spiritual forces such as intuition, will, sensitive awareness, courage, and tenacity, which are, in truth, the real secret of every

<sup>2</sup> President Eisenhower: "National Fitness," Conference delivered at Annapolis, Maryland, June 18-19, 1956.

<sup>3</sup> Pope Pius XII, "Christianization of Sports," Allocution delivered at Rome, October 9, 1955.

<sup>4</sup> *Ibid.*



successful effort . . . Spirit must predominate over technique. Make use of technique, but let the spirit prevail . . . <sup>5</sup>

Among the virtues which sports can develop in youth the Vicar of Christ enumerates obedience, patience toward audiences who are not always considerate, loyalty, modesty in victory, justice, fidelity to agreements, temperance and chastity. Conversely, our Holy Father decries "commercialism" and the cult of "stars." He likewise beautifully compares the competitive spirit in sports to the spiritual contest of life wherein not only one out of many wins the laurel. On the contrary, victory is prepared to crown each who sincerely tries.<sup>6</sup>

#### ACTIVITIES FOR LEADERSHIP

Better schools train for leadership. One of the major aims of school-sponsored activities is the promoting of Christian and democratic leadership. Through various spheres of activities the schools explore the abilities and bring to light the dormant aptitudes, talents, and resources of youth. Recently this writer watched the first publication of this year's school paper evolve. It was a gratifying sight for any educator to watch. From the first meeting wherein the editor, reporters, artists, typists, and various helpers were voted for, democratically and judiciously, until the completion and sale of the paper, there was a buzz of energetic action and worth-while achievement. It would be hard to mention all the latent talent which was brought to light upon the completion of this project. School papers offer excellent opportunity for students to develop and display talent!

One does not need a microscope to note the rapid growth of the Catholic church and school in our country. The success of parish and school work, to be sure, is not the work of one generation but rather a succession of generations of the Catholic hierarchy, religious, and laity. Now if we wish this heritage of faith to advance, then it is necessary that Catholic schools train students to take an active part in parish life. Since over 50 per

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<sup>5</sup> *Ibid.*    <sup>6</sup> *Ibid.*



cent of our Catholic high schools are parish schools, it is fitting that through clubs and activities carried on in school our students learn to help the Church in a spiritual and temporal way to carry on its mission—the kingdom of God on earth. Every Catholic student should belong to one of the parish clubs and learn the necessity of giving his support. These clubs orient knowledge gained in religious classes. Youth are a powerhouse of potentialities. Through the National Council of Catholic Youth, organized youth is being acclaimed by the Holy Father, the President, parents, teachers, and many other people. Through its positive program for youth, this council is revealing the depth and spirituality of youth organized.

#### HISTRIONIC ACTIVITIES

What teen-ager does not have a desire—secret or expressed—to appear in the footlights. An important adjunct of the co-curricular program in secondary schools is the promotion of dramatics. The educative dividends are decided and varied—the development of poise, personality, speech. In a large high school the faculty generally includes a special dramatics teacher or sponsor. In the small school the best program, it seems, is that wherein each homeroom teacher sponsors a production to be given at assemblies. With this method the maximum number of students may participate. Dramatic clubs are good, but they do not give enough opportunity to students who have undeveloped or latent talent. Dramatics can do much to bring out a shy personality, too. As this writer is an English teacher, she has found it a good practice to study the unit on drama just previous to presenting the senior class play. During this time, our class takes the form of a workshop in which we study not only from our text but also from supplementary books—stage technique, make-up, costume, characterization, dramatic speech and all the minutiae which help to make up a good production. During the period while actually rehearsing the play, the actors are called by the name of the character which they are attempting to portray. They are also advised to watch for good acting



on television and in the movies. This block also teaches an appreciation for good acting and makes them good audiences in the future. One definition of drama is "a work to be done." Indeed it entails work, but interesting work!

#### CIVIC AND SOCIAL ACTIVITIES

Too few people, especially Catholics, take civic obligations seriously. A potent way of initiating students into assuming civic responsibility is through civic clubs in schools—Student Council, Red Cross Work, Scout Work. The student council is one of the recent high school organizations. It serves as an apprenticeship for citizenship and helps students to learn the business of good citizens. It can dramatize our American form of government in a very practical way.

Youth like to affiliate themselves with groups in clubs. There are many fine clubs related to subjects in schools—Latin, Spanish, French, Science, and History Clubs. These are student-initiated clubs and furnish fine learning situations in an informal setting. The strain of a disciplined classroom is removed from these gatherings, and there is a social approach which boys and girls enjoy. These clubs not only supplement classwork but likewise feed back into the classroom to vitalize and enrich it.

One of the major objectives of education is the developing of the socially equipped student ready to take his place in contemporary society. Now social acceptability or recognition is an acquisition which is rightfully coveted by any normal being. This attainment is accomplished through various channels and is usually the byproduct of achievement in other fields. Many adults have discovered the inadequacies of formal education in orienting knowledge with their social life. Consequently the modern school attempts to bridge these deficits by teaching the social graces through student-teacher sponsored dances, parties, and other social functions. In later life many of our students will bless us for knowing the right thing to do and to say and that at the proper time.



## ADMINISTRATION OF ACTIVITIES

Because definite thinking and planning is so necessary in the curricular program, a wise administration of activities is important. All activities sponsored by the school must be under the supervision and control of the school. It is, therefore, urgent in the approach to the problem that administrators analyze and evaluate carefully what needs each activity is serving, how many students are benefiting, and whether the expenditures are proportionate to the benefits. It is obvious that there is no general pattern for each school. Each administrator must know his objectives and calculate how these are being answered for his particular school. Unguided and lacking good leadership, the high school co-curricular program may lead to excesses and undesirable outcomes. Nevertheless, with a healthy and sensible outlook, no administrator need fear to administer this phase of school work.

If the school cannot engage a specialist, the principal acts as the adviser and takes care of the over-all program. Yet each teacher is asked to sponsor an activity. This is an important aspect, for the success or failure of an activity usually rests with the sponsor. Accordingly, a wise principal will ask a teacher to sponsor that activity in which he is particularly interested. Because this area of the school program requires planning and guidance, each teacher in a small school should expect to share a portion of the responsibility.

Despite all the good stemming from the co-curricular program, reality shows that there are difficulties, evils, and problems arising with it. These are some questions which plague administrators: How much time during and after school hours should be given to activities? Are teacher sponsors spending too much time looking after them? Should teacher sponsors be paid extra? (At present most teachers are not.) Is there a neglect of school work on the part of students because of these activities? What about overemphasis on winning? Jealousy and rancor between schools? The problem of unbalanced student participation? Should there be a restriction on the basis



of scholarship? How about compulsory participation?

As any educator can see there is a definite need for clear thinking and planning. To be sure, a team, club, or any other activity needs the co-operation of its group in order to make it successful, yet the over-all supervision by the principal is a dominant factor in the success of the program. Regulation and not destruction, management and not overemphasis will lend itself to the attainment of the objectives that schools have in offering this program. The solution to many of these difficulties is the development of a systematized program with a centralization of authority by a specialist in student activities.

#### CONCLUSION

Yes, time was when the school could consider its obligation fulfilled by sitting Mary in the desk all day and teaching her the three R's. Time was, too, when it took Columbus a couple of months to cross the ocean. There is no turning back. Civilization marches on. The schools, happily, have kept pace with other phases of progress. Today's teacher aims at preparing students to live in the society in which they find themselves. The old pattern of education is not entirely changed but is being enhanced by threads unwound from the co-curriculum program.

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The new University of Dallas was dedicated by His Eminence James Francis Cardinal McIntyre, Archbishop of Los Angeles, on December 9. University classes started last September.

Fifteen alumni of Georgetown University, including one honorary alumnus, will sit in the Eighty-fifth Congress. Four are in the Senate and eleven in the House.

Rev. Vincent C. Hopkins, S.J., assistant professor of history at Fordham University, was elected president of the U.S. Catholic Historical Society in November.



## THE PRESENT CHALLENGE IN SCIENCE TEACHING

By Henry F. White\*

TODAY, IN THE UNITED STATES, a serious crisis in science teaching is present, which is a very formidable challenge to our educational systems, both public and private. How rapidly and intelligently it will be solved will be of paramount importance to our national security, our swiftly expanding economy, and the future of science teaching in America. This crisis has been precipitated by the inability of our schools to cope with the task of supplying our nation with an adequate number of competent science teachers. The fact of the matter is that we have not been able to graduate enough people, trained as scientists, engineers, science teachers, or technicians to meet our need. Russia, at present, is producing two to three times as many people in these categories as we are and intends to continue to outproduce us in scientific personnel so as to wrest from us our technical superiority.<sup>1</sup> Our national economy and our progress in military science depends more and more on scientific research and its practical applications than on improved business practices and instruction in military tactics. If we do not do our utmost to correct this situation, we are inviting a national disaster which will have international repercussions. If we do not quickly secure enough able teachers to prepare our students for these technical fields which require them, then we may as well resign ourselves to the spectacle of the United States becoming a second-rate nation.

### THOSE INVOLVED IN SOLVING DIFFICULTY

Because of the steady increase in the population of our ele-

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<sup>1</sup> Benjamin J. Fine, "Crisis in Science Teaching," *New York Times*, November 7, 1954, sec. iv, p. 11.



mentary and high schools, which by 1966 will be an estimated eleven and one-half millions,<sup>2</sup> it is imperative that this difficulty be solved in a realistic manner by the public, by school administrators, and by the faculties of teacher training and liberal arts colleges. The public enters the picture because in both public and private systems of education, in the last analysis, the public, in the role of parent and the taxpayer, pays the bills. It is but sound business practice to obtain the highest possible return on any investment. Any educational system is certainly a huge investment for it represents an outlay of millions of dollars in a most important commodity—the education of the future citizens of our country. Our nation has never been known to be satisfied with anything but the best nor should it be. It is to the advantage of our country to continue to demand adherence to high standards so that we obtain the highest possible return. To the parents and taxpayers, educational systems have a serious moral obligation to see that their efforts produce a superior product, second to none.

The administrators of the many educational institutions are gravely concerned with the problem for it will be their duty to decide whether or not they will relax their requirements and, by admitting poor teaching candidates, acknowledge defeat. They cannot lightly evade this responsibility. If they should resolve to abandon their standards and not require excellence in order to solve their problem, then they will shirk their duty, gamble with their reputation and ultimately suffer a loss of prestige. When prestige in education circles has been lost, it is a long, hard, uphill fight to regain former eminence. For the welfare of our country and their own good name, it would be fatal to bow to expediency.

It will be the unpleasant but inevitable task of the faculty to determine those among their students who will be recommended to school systems for employment as science teachers. Once recommended for a position, these people leave their institu-

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<sup>2</sup> *Critical Years Ahead in Science Teaching*, Report of Conference on Nationwide Problems of Science Teaching in Secondary Schools (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1953), p. 19.



tions, bearing with them the stamp of approval of their alma mater. If they fail to do a good job, they reflect very unfavorably on their school's faculty for incompetent teachers do not enhance the reputation of their former professors. Superintendents, whose responsibility is to supply a staff of well-trained personnel to their districts, become extremely cautious in accepting the future recommendations of such professors. In sponsoring such poor prospects for teaching, the professor is actually doing them a disservice, for sooner or later, it brings a day of disillusionment and unhappiness to those poor unfortunates and it places any good future candidate under a severe handicap. So the faculty members, who have had the task of training these people, have a grave responsibility in deciding just who will be considered qualified for employment.

#### MAGNITUDE, ORIGIN, AND EFFECTS OF SITUATION

Let us consider the magnitude of the problem. The report of a recent survey indicates that demands for those beginning to teach science originate from replacements and an increase in the total number of new positions to be filled. Replacements arise from death, retirements, acceptance of other educational responsibilities (chiefly administration duties), and acceptance of employment outside of school systems. According to this survey, the estimated annual rate of replacement is 7 per cent of the number of positions. For science teachers, this figure may be too low because industry offers many enticing possibilities. The report also states that by 1959, high school enrollment will be over nine million and by 1965, two or three million more. By this time, the number of full-time and part-time teachers of science will reach a hundred thousand. Replacements, each year, will demand some seven thousand new teachers with another three thousand required for new teaching positions.<sup>3</sup> Nowhere in this study was any allowance made for the replacement of inadequately prepared instructors. Since the present number of potential science teachers is about five thousand, a grave short-

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<sup>3</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 19-22.



age is inevitable unless some panacea appears. From 1950-1954, there has been a decrease of 56 per cent in the number of college students preparing to teach science.<sup>4</sup> A very marked lack of teachers, specially trained for teaching in engineering schools, is also evident. At present, the shortage is estimated to be between five hundred and a thousand teachers. Some investigators maintain that this estimate is conservative and insist that the true number is nearer two thousand.<sup>5</sup>

If we lack the teachers to prepare our students for science teaching, it is evident that it will have an immediate effect on the future of science teaching in our country. The quality of the teaching will deteriorate and with this the attractions of such positions will vanish. The Iron Curtain countries, on the other hand, in the opinion of leading engineers and scientists of our country, have steadily progressed not only in the quantity of scientists and engineers whom they have been graduating but also in the quality to such an extent that they are considered equal to the best products of the American universities and technical schools. After graduation the student scientists and student engineers of these countries are draft-deferred and free, in fact, encouraged, to continue their studies; such is not the usual situation in this country.<sup>6</sup>

#### RECRUITMENT OF SCIENCE TEACHERS

This problem viewed from the educational standpoint has two aspects. The first is quantitative in nature. Let us admit that there is a very serious shortage in the number of people being trained for science teaching. From where will a sufficient number come and how many well-qualified instructors can be obtained? This disturbing situation is bound up with the problem of recruitment. To obtain the necessary numbers, we will have to interest many who are now enrolled in liberal arts colleges. The reason for tapping this source is that the teacher training

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<sup>4</sup> Helen T. Emory, "To Be Paid for Summer Science Study," *New York World Telegram*, October 20, 1955.

<sup>5</sup> Fine, *loc. cit.*

<sup>6</sup> *Ibid.*



institutions are not graduating enough students even to replace those who die, retire or leave the profession for other reasons. We have no other alternative but to dip into the ranks of the students of the liberal arts colleges.

In recruitment, there are two facets. The first is the task of attracting good teaching material. The second is holding them to their decision—to teach science in the face of attractions of industrial and governmental offers. In a partial solution to the first problem, the educational institutions have received a great deal of very valuable help from all the various media of communication throughout the country—the press, radio, and television. Science programs presented along with the eloquent appeals of prominent educators, well-known captains of industry, and nationally known political figures have helped to interest young people in scientific fields as research, industry, and science teaching. A very important figure in this picture is the high school science teacher—the person who introduces and guides the embryonic scientists in their first steps. The importance of the high school science teacher cannot and should not be underestimated and all encouragement and assistance should be extended to them that they continue their efforts. While students may be influenced, temporarily, by an occasional appeal from outside the school, the permanent influence on young minds will be exerted by those with whom the students have daily contact—their science instructors. Consequently, due to their teachers' appeals, many students have enrolled in college science teaching programs, but not nearly enough.

To maintain the interest of college students in the teaching profession will be the job of the college science faculty members. It will be up to these people to bend every effort toward encouraging their students to persevere. No one, who has had any experience in teacher training institutions or in liberal arts colleges will deny that this goal—that of holding their students to their decision to teach—is the most difficult battle of all to win. The monetary inducements offered to well-trained science students by industry and government so overwhelm them that they



succumb.<sup>7</sup> With their departure from the academic field, our supply of students, intended either as replacements or for the staffing of the science departments of recently constructed elementary and high schools, decreases and this loss is not rapidly or easily recouped. Today because of the requirement of service in the armed forces, many of our male students are not available. Will they return to the classroom and the laboratory after their service years are over?

#### SALARY SCALE COMPARABLE TO INDUSTRY

In order to compete with the advantages offered by industry and government, our school systems and consequently, parents and taxpayers will have to recognize one hard fact—that the salary scale for the new and the veteran teacher suffers most unfavorably when compared to these other offers. No one can ignore the fact that industry and government today are outbidding educational institutions in their talent search. The first step is to institute a salary scale comparable to that of industry and government. Impossible! That this goal is unattainable is too hard to admit in view of the fact that more is spent annually, in the United States, on liquor and entertainment than on education and that more comic books are sold than the combined number of textbooks bought by our elementary and high school systems. In the face of this, one reaches the conclusion that we must re-examine our sense of values. What is more important, more permanent or more valuable than a good, sound education? A smart business man appreciates the fact that if he wishes to purchase an article of good quality, he must pay in proportion and that by buying a product because it is cheap, of poor quality, in the long run proves to be an expensive and wasteful business deal. A recognized axiom in business is that competition reduces the cost of a product and, at the same time, forces manufacturers to offer articles of superior quality. In the present crisis, there is no competition for jobs in science teaching for we

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<sup>7</sup> "The Production of Physicists," A Report of the Joint Conference of the National Research Council and the American Institute of Physics, *Physics Today*, VIII (June, 1955), 9.



do not have enough qualified graduates applying for the ever increasing numbers of positions. With the great increase in enrollment at both the elementary and secondary school levels come more and more openings. Therefore, in the present situation, there is no real competition. Our supply has not kept abreast of the demand and the salary scale is so inadequate. This has presented to officials of schools systems a dilemma. They are faced with the prospect of having too few properly trained science instructors on hand for the opening of schools and so must either leave some classes uncovered or else permit improperly trained or totally inadequate teachers to conduct these science classes. Either is a very dangerous situation in which to make a decision and both are fraught with disastrous consequences. Actually not offering courses in science is preferable to sponsoring improperly conducted science classes. If we use this solution, we are denying an opportunity of learning science to our students who are living in an age of science and we may suffer the loss of potentially great research scientists and science teachers. Usually, in response to the demands of irate parents, the taxpayers, class size is increased to such an extent that the overburdened teachers cannot do their assignments properly because they lack the necessary time and equipment to do justice to these large numbers.<sup>8</sup> This leads to complaints about teaching loads and working conditions which do not promote contentment among the science department. Because of the development of such a situation, this has contributed to the mass exodus of science teachers into other occupations. If we, on the other hand, increase the number of science classes and permit poorly trained instructors to conduct these classes, the students are not taught properly and come away, poorly trained with a world of scientific misconceptions. Paying for a poor substitute is not a wise investment and ultimately proves expensive financially and detrimental academically. Choosing this solution to the problem will wreck the future of science teaching in the United States which up to now has enjoyed a very fine reputation.

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<sup>8</sup> *Critical Years Ahead in Science Teaching*, p. 17.



The second aspect of the problem is qualitative. What kind of individual should we seek to train? What is the ideal type of training which these neophytes should receive so that they will develop into that type of instructor so desired by the profession? From this we see that recruitment and training are inescapably bound up with each other. If, as a result of the lack of science teachers, the nation becomes fully aware of the dire need and salaries are so adjusted that a sufficient number of the right kind of prospective science teacher is attracted and if these people persevere in their determination to teach then it follows, that since these instructors will be well paid for their services, our nation has the right to demand that they be adequately trained for the task, that high standards of certification be maintained, that our communities refuse to have improperly prepared or totally inadequate substitutes foisted on them. One serious danger, in the present state of affairs is that, since the shortage of science teachers has been so well publicized, many students in our teacher training institutions and liberal arts colleges who have not been faring so well in their present major fields of study as English, history, sociology, and modern languages, have changed to a science major. These students figure that because there is such an urgent need for science teachers, school boards will not dare to be too selective nor will state boards of certification be too exacting in their requirements. That these students have proved to be correct in their calculations has come true in too many cases. Unfortunately, too frequently, many people are permitted to teach classes, especially in the field of general science, who have had neither a major nor minor in science.<sup>9</sup> This appears to be comparable to a situation where a person summons a lawyer to diagnose some serious medical ailment.

#### DESIRABLE PREPARATION OF SCIENCE TEACHERS

The traditional policy, followed in many institutions where a person has studied a major exclusively devoted to chemistry, physics or biology has proved a detriment. Therefore, we find

<sup>9</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 35-36.



people teaching some subject, other than their specialty, in which they have had little or no previous training.<sup>10</sup> Such narrow specialized training is a handicap. It is true that in the large urban high schools where many sections of one of the sciences are offered annually, a teacher with such a narrow background may be able to fit into the organization of the school and survive but such a condition is not found on a national scale for only 6 per cent of all the high schools enroll more than one thousand pupils. Even in this instance, the teachers are unable, successfully, to integrate principles of the other sciences with their own subject matter and their students fail to have a broad understanding of scientific principles and lack the ability to make broad generalizations. Such students would not be considered well trained nor are they likely to achieve future excellence for they soon lose interest and lacking such motivation, they cease any further scientific studies. In smaller schools, teachers will have to teach, at least, another science and possibly over a four year or more span, such sciences as physics, chemistry, biology, general science, earth science, and hygiene. Proper training in these sciences in both method and content, at least fundamental courses in all these subjects, would be considered the best minimum preparation. The broadest possible training has proved to be the most desirable background for our embryonic science teachers.<sup>11</sup>

#### PROBLEM CONFRONTS CATHOLIC INSTITUTIONS

What has been discussed so far, is applicable on a national scale without specific reference to either public or private systems of education. Permit me to make some observations in respect to our parochial school systems. There is a crisis of the same nature developing in our Catholic school system. Our Catholic population in the United States is increasing. In our large cities wherein the bulk of the Catholic population resides, we need more and more facilities in the way of physical plants and faculty to serve our increased enrollment. It has been stated

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<sup>10</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 8.

<sup>11</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 40.



that to do this job well, the Bishops of the United States need many more thousands of religious. Vocations for the various religious orders, generally, have increased. But again as in the case of the public school teachers, some die, some are retired for various reasons and some leave the religious life. In recent years, the total number of religious in the teaching fields has shown a steady increase but it is not rapid enough nor large enough to staff our schools as they should be. We are living in a society which is technological and it demands in many more walks of life people who are technically trained. This, then, is the crux of the situation. Catholic educators admit the necessity of offering as complete a program of science, as is humanly possible, because of necessary vocational and professional training. Will the necessary number of properly trained science teachers come from the ranks of the religious or must we, in order to supplement them, turn to the fine products of our Catholic male and female colleges and universities? It now is becoming evident that to staff our Catholic elementary and high schools, we must turn more and more to our own Catholic college graduates. What are we prepared to offer them in the way of salary? Many students have expressed a keen desire to return to a Catholic high school and teach science in such pleasant surroundings. They know that it would be a very wonderful, satisfying life's work to labor with their former teachers, both lay and religious whom they love and respect but!

Why any "but's"? The reason for the "but's" is the salary scale. To go into the public school system, industry or government agencies where, by their exemplary Catholic life, they can influence their non-Catholic co-workers is a glorious manifestation of Catholic Action but it does not solve the problem of the need of well-prepared science teachers in our parochial school system. Our Catholic high school students should be associated not only with the religious but also with Catholic laymen and women, people of high moral standards, fine scholars and excellent teachers. Our boys and girls admire these self-sacrificing individuals and leave their schools with a lasting love for them. Is a good



salary scale impossible? It is possible to pay our laymen and women teachers a decent salary. The unstinting generosity of the Catholic laity is evident, at home, in the thousands of churches, rectories, convents, training colleges of male and female religious, monasteries, colleges, universities, high and elementary schools in the United States. Abroad, we have our many mission outposts, supported by our laity. Our Catholic laity who more and more are realizing the vital necessity and importance of a sound intellectual and religious education, will answer this appeal, in the same way in which they have answered all requests of the past, with their typical, supernaturally inspired generosity.

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Sister M. Camille of the Sisters of St. Francis, president of the College of Saint Teresa, Winona, Minnesota, was recently named an Officer of the French Academy by the French Government.

Recipients of annual medal awards by Catholic higher educational institutions last month included: General Alfred M. Gruenther, University of Notre Dame's Laetare Medal; Mother Anna Dengel, foundress of the Medical Mission Sisters, the Poverello Medal of the College of Steubenville, and John M. Nolan, St. John's University's St. Vincent de Paul Medal.

St. Michael's College, Winooski, Vermont, with an enrollment of 703, has 141 Vermont students and 562 out-of-staters. At Trinity College, Burlington, 58 of the 141 students are not residents of Vermont. A recent survey shows that two-thirds of the students in all Vermont colleges come from other states.

The U.S. Information Agency, Washington 25, D.C., is seeking candidates for overseas posts as cultural affairs officers, information officers, and bi-national center officers. Salaries range from \$5,700 to \$10,000, plus allowances. Age limits are 31 to 55.



## **THE CATHOLIC UNIVERSITY RESEARCH ABSTRACTS\***

### **PSYCHOLOGICAL AND EDUCATIONAL PRINCIPLES UNDERLYING REMEDIAL READING: A CRITICAL SURVEY AND EVALUATION** by Mother Patrice Donovan, R.S.C.J., M.A.

The purpose of this investigation was to determine the major psychological and educational principles underlying remedial reading and to evaluate the results of the applications of these principles.

A survey of the literature revealed that the experts in the field of remedial reading agree on four fundamental psychological and educational principles that should form the foundation of effective remedial-reading programs. They are: (1) Motivation, interests, and attitudes of pupils in the reading situation must be aroused. (2) The remedial-reading teacher plays an important role in the program. (3) Individual differences must be taken into account. (4) Reading is an aspect of total growth.

An examination of various studies in the field of remedial reading revealed that the application of these four fundamental principles resulted in successful remedial-reading programs.

### **MISTAKES AND THEIR CAUSES IN SILENT READING OF INTERMEDIATE GRADE CHILDREN** by Sister M. Georgeline Dues, O.S.U., M.A.

This study was undertaken to ascertain the causes of errors in written examinations among intermediate-grade children and to determine whether or not reasons for errors characteristic of high reading achievement were also characteristic of children of average and low reading-achievement groups.

The Durrell-Sullivan Reading Capacity and Reading Achievement Tests were administered to 242 fifth- and sixth-grade pupils of four Catholic parochial schools in Mississippi. On the

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\* Manuscripts of these M.A. dissertations are on deposit in the library of The Catholic University of America and may be obtained through inter-library loan.



basis of the tests the pupils were classified into three groups—high, average, and low. The investigator interviewed each pupil in order to find out what reasons they had for the errors they made in the tests.

A variety of reasons were given for the selection of answers among which the inability to find the central thought was mentioned most frequently in all achievement groups except the average group of the fifth grade. For this group the difficulty of vocabulary was the reason most frequently given for the errors made. An admission of guessing was mentioned frequently by the low-achievement group of both grades. The low-achievement group of both grades also admitted that they lacked concentration while taking the test. Worry over the time-limit was given as a reason for errors by a considerable number of the average-achievement group of the fifth-grade.

It would seem from the results of this survey that reasons for errors characteristic of high-achievement pupils were not characteristic of average- and low-achievement pupils.

**THE EFFECTS OF GUIDED READING ON A CHANGE OF ATTITUDE TOWARD THE NEGRO** by Sister M. Christine Beck, R.S.M., M.A.

This study aimed to ascertain the effects of a program of guided reading on the attitude of white seventh- and eighth-grade boys and girls toward the Negro.

The investigator set up three equated forms of an attitude scale derived according to Thurstone's method of equal-appearing intervals. Form A of the attitude scale was administered to an experimental group of 140 pupils and to a control group of 140 pupils in the month of October. Eight weeks of guided reading and discussion followed for the experimental group. In December Form B was administered to both groups. A period of six months was allowed to elapse before Form C was given to both groups.

An analysis of the data obtained from the scores made by the pupils on the three forms of the attitude scale showed no statistical difference between the two groups as a whole. Both groups



increased in favorableness of attitude toward the Negro between the administration of Form A and Form B, but the experimental group showed a greater persistence in its change of attitude as was evidenced by the results of Form C. Girls were more influenced by a program of reading in their change of attitude toward the Negro than were the boys.

**TRENDS IN THE OBJECTIVES OF HIGH SCHOOL ENGLISH, 1894-1950**  
by Brother Donald Fahrig, S.M., M.A.

This study traced the changes which have been made in the statements of the objectives of high school English. The entire period studied was divided into four short periods. The aims for the period from 1894 to 1917 were largely of the mental-discipline type. Cultural and practical aims were emphasized in the period from 1917 to 1932. Social and utility aims dominated the period from 1932 to 1941. From 1941 to 1950 citizenship aims were stressed.

The over-all picture showed that the aims for high school English from 1894 to 1950 changed from formal to practical. The broad general trends were from mental discipline to cultural, to functional, and to social aims. The generic aims of correct expression and efficient reception of language were constant throughout the period studied.

**AN ANALYSIS OF SOME PLANE GEOMETRY TEXTS WITH REFERENCE TO THE OBJECTIVES AND ORGANIZATIONAL ELEMENTS OF THE FUNCTIONAL MATHEMATICS PROGRAM IN THE SECONDARY CURRICULUM** by Sister Claude Marie Faust, C.C.V.I., M.A.

The purpose of this study was to determine the extent to which the effort to evolve a functional mathematics program has been realized in the aims, the subject matter, and the instructional techniques included in geometry texts for the tenth grade published between 1940 and 1950.

The analysis of the contents and instructional methods of the textbooks revealed the influence of the functional program of mathematics which was set up by the National Committee on Mathematical Requirements in 1923.



The recommended functional features found in the majority of the texts examined were: (1) Recognition of the aims of the functional program. (2) Emphasis on the idea of motion in parts of figures. (3) Use of motion in instances where a grouping of similar theorems was made possible. (4) Treatment of trigonometry following the study of similarity. (5) Dynamic treatment of locus problems. (6) Use of arithmetic and algebra as a means of simplifying geometric problems. (7) Use of effective instructional devices.

CONTRIBUTION MADE BY AMERICA FROM 1930 to 1950 TOWARD THE DEVELOPMENT OF CONCEPT OF CHRISTIAN EDUCATION AS OUTLINED AND DECREED BY POPE PIUS XI IN *Christian Education of Youth* by Sister M. Marsile Girard, O.P., M.A.

The purpose of this dissertation was to classify and analyze articles, editorials, and other types of items on education which appeared in *America*, the Jesuit national weekly, between the years 1930 and 1950 in order to bring out this periodical's contribution to the implementation of the educational principles which Pope Pius XI laid down in his encyclical, *The Christian Education of Youth*, in 1929.

The results of the investigation showed that *America* has been not only a faithful voice in keeping the Pope's educational proposals alive but also a reliable listening post in detecting attacks from the camp of secularism in education aimed at weakening the influence of the encyclical.

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Copies of a report on the employment of women college graduates, entitled "Employment After College: Report on Women Graduates, Class of 1955," may be obtained free by writing to the Women's Bureau, U.S. Department of Labor Washington 25, D.C. Of the employed 1955 graduates, 3 out of 5 became teachers. Ninety-five per cent of the employed education majors became teachers. Only half of the employed chemistry majors became chemists.



## HIGHER EDUCATION NOTES

**Catholic University's Dean of Theology**, Very Rev. Francis J. Connell, C.S.S.R., was named Consultor to the Congregation of Seminaries and Universities by His Holiness Pope Pius XII in November. The official document of nomination was presented by His Excellency Most Rev. Bryan J. McEntegart, Rector of the University, at a formal reception in honor of Doctor Connell on December 7. A member of the University faculty since 1940, Doctor Connell has been Dean of the School of Sacred Theology since 1949. Two other members of the University staff, Rt. Rev. Msgr. Joseph C. Fenton and Rev. James H. Van Der Veldt, O.F.M., are counselors for the Congregation of Seminaries and Universities. With the appointment of Doctor Connell, the Congregation now has three American consultors; the other two are Rt. Msgr. Malachy P. Foley, Rector of St. Mary of the Lake Seminary, Mundelein, Illinois, and Rt. Rev. Msgr. Rudolph G. Bandas, Rector of St. Paul Seminary, St. Paul, Minnesota.

**Thirty-five Catholic educational institutions** are among the 297 privately-supported colleges and universities sharing in the recently announced Esso Education Foundation grant of \$1,191,450. In distribution, this total grant was divided and allocated according to four purposes. The largest portion, \$726,500, in which the Catholic schools shared, was given in the form of unrestricted grants for undergraduate education to 256 institutions. The other three purposes were capital projects, research projects, and miscellaneous. Fordham University is the only Catholic school to share in benefits from any of these three portions of the grant. It was given a grant for capital projects. Grants for undergraduate education were given to 100 institutions sponsored by non-Catholic church groups and to 121 conducted by non-denominational organizations, in addition to the 35 Catholic schools.

Other significant financial aids to Catholic institutions of



higher education reported recently include: contributions of \$125,000 each from the Chrysler Corporation of Canada and the Ford Motor Company of Canada to the Assumption University (Windsor, Ontario) building fund; \$100,311 from the New Jersey Joint Teamsters Council 73 to Seton Hall College of Medicine and Dentistry; \$7,000 to the College of St. Mary-of-the-Wasatch for its library and \$3,000 to St. Joseph College (Emmitsburg, Maryland) for research in chemistry by the Raskob Foundation.

In November, the Community Facilities Administration of the Federal Housing and Home Finance Agency approved loans to three Catholic colleges for expanding present facilities: Mount St. Mary's (Los Angeles), \$700,000; Assumption (Worcester), \$620,000, and St. Benedict's (Atchison), \$500,000.

**More than twenty suggestions** for solving the critical shortage of college teachers which is emphasized in the first report to the President by his Committee on Education Beyond the High School are offered in a book, *Expanding Resources for College Teaching*, issued recently by the American Council on Education.

Pooling the recommendations of forty leading educators, the book points out that college teachers themselves, by their attitudes toward their profession, can play a major role in solving the need for competent campus personnel. The college leaders report that teachers as a group, concerned by the limited financial returns of their profession and constrained by a feeling that recruiting talent for teaching may be "unseemly and presumptuous," tend to hold back from the tough competition with science, engineering, medicine, business, and other fields and professions for the available young people in the national talent pool. Education has a moral obligation to engage effectively in the contest, college leaders agree, however, and teachers should seek to identify the young people who have the intellectual capacity, the personality, and the character for college teaching, and should encourage them to choose teaching as a career.



The book is based on a conference sponsored by the American Council's Committee on College Teaching which was presided over by the chairman, O. Meredith Wilson, president of the University of Oregon.

**Middle States Association** of Colleges and Secondary Schools, at its meeting in Atlantic City, November 23-24, passed a resolution, submitted earlier in November to it and the other regional accrediting associations by the National Commission on Accrediting of the American Council on Education, approving recognition of the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education as the national accrediting agency for teacher education, after certain changes in the structure of that agency have been made. The structural changes in NCATE, suggested by NCA, were reported in the December, 1956, issue of this review.

**University of Detroit freshmen** will soon be attending lectures from their easy chairs at home. A comprehensive plan for education by television was announced last month by Rev. Celestin J. Steiner, S.J., president of the University, on the occasion of the dedication of the new Smith Radio-TV Centre on the Detroit campus. By September, 1957, the lecture and demonstration portions of all first-year courses will be beamed to students over educational television channel WTVS. In addition, three evening division courses, normally offered on campus to freshmen, will be telecast. Starting as early as February, 1957, the University will telecast a half-hour weekly career guidance program and a pre-college series for high school seniors.

"We do not regard this extensive education by television program as a gimmick," Father Steiner said. "TV is not intended to replace conventional educational methods. We will use it as a tool to bring one phase of our campus educational techniques—the lecture and demonstration—closer to more students." He warned that there is to be no TV substitute for campus discussion periods, quiz sessions, counseling, laboratory exercises, comprehensive examinations, and co-curricular activities. Tuition for TV courses will be adjusted to compensate for students purchase of sets.



Reasons prompting the new program are: (1) the educational climate which demands that every qualified high school graduate be given a chance for a college education; (2) the cry of public educators for additional tax monies to expand their facilities; (3) the impossibility of obtaining top quality professors to take care of the two to three times as many students expected by many educators by 1970 to 1975; and (4) the present great need for scientists, engineers, and liberally educated citizens in the light of international competition.

**College enrollments in September, 1956**, were 8.7 per cent higher than in September 1955, the U.S. Office of Education reported last month. If that rate of increase were to continue, college enrollments would take only eight more years to double. Actually, Office of Education projections say, they are more likely to take thirteen years.

According to Office of Education estimates, this is what happened to enrollments of "degree-credit students" at institutions of higher learning in the fall of 1956: (1) the total reached a new high of 2,957,000—236,000 more than in the fall of 1955; (2) students enrolling in college for the first time numbered 735,000—45,000, or 6.6 per cent, more than in 1955.

Both estimates are based on returns from 1,195 institutions out of a total of 1,850. When all the facts are in, they will probably prove the estimates moderately accurate, the report maintains. Last year's estimates, based on the same number of institutions, missed accuracy by less than two-tenths of 1 per cent for total enrollment and by less than seventh-tenths of 1 per cent for first-time enrollments.

**Hungarian refugee students** were offered scholarships by two Catholic universities last month. Two four-year full-tuition scholarships, valued at \$2,800 each, have been set up at St. John's University (Brooklyn) so that qualified applicants might enter school for the February, 1957, term. An offer of two \$4,340 scholarships, plus money for books, clothing, and other expenses for refugee students was extended by students of Gonzaga University.



## SECONDARY EDUCATION NOTES

**First necessity of a Catholic youth program** is the Catholic high school, said Archbishop Joseph P. Hurley of the Diocese of St. Augustine, Florida, as he announced a program to build eight new diocesan high schools last month at a meeting of the executive board of the new Florida Catholic Youth Program for High School Education. Immediate plans call for the construction of the following new schools: two in the area of Greater Miami and one each in St. Augustine, Jacksonville, Daytona Beach, Fort Lauderdale, Bradenton-Sarasota area, and Palm Beach-Lake Worth area. Construction of a new high school in St. Petersburg is nearing completion and the building will be ready for the second semester of the current school year. In addition to these nine new schools, the board foresees the need of thirteen more in the near future. The program is based on the findings of a survey of Florida Catholic high school needs conducted by Rev. William F. McKeever, diocesan superintendent of schools.

**Achievement in religion and English** may be conveniently analyzed in high schools affiliated with The Catholic University of America by means of norms resulting from the University's Affiliation Testing Program for 1956 which are presented in detail, and with suggestions for interpretation and follow-up study, in the November, 1956, issue of the *Affiliation Bulletin for Secondary Schools*.

The general report on the testing program indicates that 181 schools participated, 18,349 pupils took a total of 32,010 tests, and 1,682 Affiliation Committee diplomas were issued. Pupils from twenty-nine states, the District of Columbia, Canada, Cuba, Hawaii, South China, and the Virgin Islands were tested. Distributed by geographical areas, 20 per cent of the pupils were from the New England area, 22 per cent from the Middle Eastern, 13 per cent from the Southeastern and South Central,



14 per cent from the North Central, 26 per cent from the Far Western, and 5 per cent from outside continental United States.

Principals of schools not participating in the Affiliation Testing Program are invited to consider its benefits for their schools. The many recent developments in the program, both in the nature and make-up of the tests and in the type and quality of analytical reports, reflect the best in modern and scientific testing techniques. The program now offers a reliable tool for the measuring of achievement in Catholic secondary schools.

Testing is an important phase of instruction. All Catholic school instruction should be distinctively Catholic. The success of such instruction can be measured adequately only by instruments designed with a Catholic perspective. Good Catholic tests are now available through the efforts of the University's Committee on Affiliation. Greater use of these tests would afford more representative norms of achievement.

**Special reading class pros and cons** are presented in an article, entitled "Reactions for and Against the Special Reading Class" by Lawrence W. Carrillo, a supervisor of reading, in the December, 1956, issue of *California Journal of Secondary Education*. Reactions, for and against, of teachers, pupils, and administrators are reported. Teachers who favor the class say that they feel inadequate to provide the special help necessary for retarded readers and their problems are somewhat relieved by the inclusion of the class in the curriculum. Teachers against the class claim that when pupils are given special attention in a field such as reading, this is usually substituted for one of the more traditional subjects.

Many pupils make astonishing gains in relatively short spaces of time through special reading classes, say some administrators. Opposing administrators maintain that these classes necessitate a basic change in scheduling. As a reaction to administrators who say the special reading class "seems to work," other administrators, from long experience, say any method of organization receiving special emphasis will tend "to work."



## ELEMENTARY EDUCATION NOTES

**World-wide study of the methods** used in teaching reading and writing both to children and to adults is now in the process of publication and will be distributed soon by Scott, Foresman and Company of Chicago. In 1952, the director general of UNESCO invited William S. Gray, director of research in reading at the University of Chicago to make this survey.

In the course of his investigation, Gray noted that the mechanisms of reading are similar whatever the type of writing or the spoken language. He determined this fact by photographing the eye-movements of mature readers of fourteen different languages. The records showed that the movements of the eyes in the process of reading are the same for different languages and for different types of writing. For the skilled reader the process of reading is governed by the content of the text. An obvious conclusion, therefore, is that pupils must be trained from the outset in reading to understand. Apparently, other countries are not as imbued with the importance of this truth as are reading teachers in the United States. Gray's report should not be left unperused by anyone who is interested in the promotion of world literacy.

**Start science teaching early.** This advice was given by Dr. H. Schneider of City College of New York at a recent Catholic teachers' meeting in St. Louis. Teaching science at the youngest possible age is of great importance because science is one of the few fields where children can learn to think clearly and to correctly evaluate facts. It is of additional value in that it will help to arouse young children's interests in science and thus to create a large pool from which to draw future scientists and engineers. "We cannot expect to train the number we need to continue progress in this country merely by discovering bright students at end of the high school level," Schneider warned.

**Can the classroom teacher deal successfully with the average**



run of speech problems found in the elementary schools? If she has a minimum basic knowledge of speech defects and speech correction, the answer, according to V.A. Anderson, director of the Speech and Hearing Clinic at Stanford University, is, "More than one would think!"

Fortunately most speech defects found among the school population are not particularly complicated or deep-seated, and a large proportion of them respond readily to intelligent handling, especially if dealt with in time. Only about 15 per cent of the defects have any structural basis, and only approximately 2 per cent could be called involved, intricate, or difficult to correct. One of the first responsibilities of the teacher is, of course, to recognize a speech defect when she hears one so that she can either deal with it herself or refer the child to some one who can. Also, since it is well known that symptoms of personality and emotional maladjustment are found much more frequently among speech defectives than among normal speakers, Anderson feels that one of the most constructive steps the teacher can take is to assist the child in developing social and emotional maturity.

**Fatigue caused by poor school lighting** may bring about blinking and nervousness in pupils, claims Sylvester Guth, a General Electric lighting expert. Guth's studies on eye tension and reading fatigue included the use of the "blink test" in which the number of times a person blinks is considered the index to his fatigue.

While most children have normal eyesight when they start school, by the time they reach junior and senior high school 30 to 50 per cent have visual problems. Part of the blame may lie with improper school illumination, glare, and size of type. One basic condition for avoiding eyestrain, Guth stresses, is that the "brightness" of the pupil's work be about the same as that of its surroundings. Other suggestions to teachers for the avoidance of eyestrain in pupils are: (1) use window shades to reduce visibility of sun and bright sky and to eliminate glare conditions; (2) use No. 1 pencil (soft black lead) on white paper; (3) insist on good reproduction of stencil-duplicated materials, and (4)



have pupils tilt reading material upward since the visual size of flat printed material is reduced by 30 per cent.

**D.C. schools lower average class size** now that the analysis of causes of retardation in these schools has almost ceased and attention is being devoted to what can be done about it. There will be an increased school budget in the District of Columbia to permit more teachers to be hired for remedial classes and other special teaching sections for the correction of whatever pupil deficiencies exist. Funds were voted in the last session of Congress to add enough teachers to reduce the city average elementary class size from the 36 which had become traditional to 35. If the budget is increased as has been proposed, the city's average elementary class size will be lowered to 32.

**Comparison of interests** of English and American school children shows that there is a consistent tendency for English children to like fewer things and dislike more things than American children do. This difference was revealed by Leona Tyler of the University of Oregon after administering the Dreese and Mooney Interest Inventory for Elementary Grades to several hundred American and English ten- and eleven-year-olds.

For the large majority of the inventory items that were selected the English children registered *less liking* and *more disliking* than did the Americans. There are only a very few exceptions. English boys like clay modeling better than American boys do, and English girls are more enthusiastic than American girls about several kinds of movies, playing with blocks, going to parties, gardening, and sewing. Otherwise, the trend is in the other direction, with American children liking everything more. Tyler offers several possible explanations for this difference. The simplest and most obvious is that American children, perhaps because of some consistent influence in home or school, are more enthusiastic about things in general than the English children are. Another reason may be that the English child is brought up to "know his place," and thus sees more things as inappropriate for him.



## NEWS FROM THE FIELD

**The new communist regime in Poland** has guaranteed voluntary religious instruction in elementary and "middle" schools for children whose parents desire it, according to a report from Warsaw which was released last month by NCWC News Service. While religious instruction is not to be an obligatory subject in the schools, school officials are obliged to make it possible and must work out specific time schedules for it. Religion teachers are to be proposed by the Church, appointed by the school authorities and paid by the state. The program of instruction and the necessary books are to be agreed upon by both authorities. Participation of the children must be organized by the Church with the support of school authorities. Both sides guarantee full liberty and tolerance for believers as well as for non-believers. Both will oppose all attempts against freedom of conscience.

**A storm over statues in classrooms** loaned to the public school district by Holy Spirit Catholic Church in Pequannock, New Jersey, ended last month. Last September, when overcrowding became acute in the local public school, due to the fact that a new school under construction had not been completed, the pastor of Holy Spirit offered the school district the use of three classrooms in the parish school, free of charge. The district board was grateful and sent ninety-five public school pupils to the school. They were taught by regular public school teachers, and all went smoothly until a few citizens complained about the presence of the statues in the classrooms. After considering the complaint, a sub-committee of the board of education recommended that no action be taken and said: "The facilities which have been made available to the board have been examined and approved by the New Jersey State Department of Education, and in the opinion of the sub-committee meet the requirements of the board for facilities which provide suitable educa-



tional, health and safety requirements." Most Protestants in the community were embarrassed by the complaint.

As an aftermath of the incident, the Pequannock Township Committee voted to provide the services of a nurse for the Catholic school pupils. The local board of education had first considered such a gesture but a ruling from the county superintendent of schools said that the board could not spend funds on any but public school use, except for transportation.

**Two potentially severe blows to churches' efforts** in education and social work were averted recently by actions of the U.S. Supreme Court and the Supreme Court of Pennsylvania. Last month the U.S. Supreme Court refused to review a California case challenging that state's property tax exemption for private, non-profit, elementary and secondary schools by declining jurisdiction in the case on the grounds that it lacked "a substantial Federal question." In November, Pennsylvania's highest court, in a case involving eight Catholic and two Protestant institutions, upheld payment of public funds for care of dependent children placed in denominational institutions by civic authorities.

In California, private, non-profit schools below the college level had to pay property taxes until 1951. In that year, the legislature passed a law relieving them of this burden. In 1952, the California Taxpayers Association forced a referendum on the law. Labelled "Proposition Three" on the ballot, the exemption was approved by the voters. Later the law was challenged in a case before the Alameda County Superior Court where it was ruled unconstitutional. This ruling was reversed in June, 1956, by a 4 to 3 decision of the California Supreme Court which said: "... the principle of separation of church and state is not impaired by granting tax exemptions to religious groups generally, and it seems clear the First Amendment was not intended to prohibit such exemptions." It was this decision the U.S. Supreme Court refused to review last month. Eight Justices agreed with the California court's solution of the case, though two of these dissented "without comment" because of another



point in the case involving California law. Chief Justice Earl Warren, former California governor, disqualified himself because he had signed the bill into law five years ago.

In the Pennsylvania case, the state's Supreme Court said that the payment of public funds for care of dependent children in denominational institutions does not violate the First Amendment because the payment are, in effect, for the benefit of the child and not the institution maintaining him. The court dismissed, with the comment that "it is unnecessary to devote much time to this contention," an argument presented by the appellant that the payments constituted an "establishment of religion." It added that the state's constitution "does not prohibit the state or any of its agencies from doing business with denominational or sectarian institutions, nor from paying just debts to them when incurred at its direction or with its approval."

**Graduates of teachers' colleges** are not to be hired to teach liberal arts courses in the schools of Phoenix, Arizona. The December 8, 1956, issue of *Human Events*, weekly newsletter published at 1835 K Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C., reported that the Phoenix Board of Education approved a resolution to this effect a short while ago. The board's new ruling requires applicants to hold a master's or a doctor's degree from a liberal arts college.

Also reported in the same issue of *Human Events* is the fact that PTA chapters in and around Indianapolis have withdrawn from the PTA because they disagreed with policies handed down by the national office. The continued stand of the state and national PTA groups in favor of Federal aid to education is one of the reasons for the action of the Indianapolis groups.

Moreover, the report states: PTA members in the Los Angeles area have flared up at the state organization for its "gag rule tactics." PTA policy, say the dissidents, is decided from the top down, and local groups are not permitted to discuss both sides of an issue once a national or state PTA "stand" has been proclaimed."



## BOOK REVIEWS

ADMINISTRATIVE LEADERSHIP IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL by  
Hanne J. Hicks. New York: Ronald Press Co., 1956. Pp. xi +  
456. \$5.00.

This book, the latest volume in the Douglass Series in Education, is designed to clarify and strengthen the concept of leadership in the modern elementary school. While the volume includes sufficient educational theory to challenge the mature student of education, it emphasizes especially the practical aspects of leadership by stressing ways and means by which the educational leader of the elementary school can improve instruction, promote staff leadership, manage the school, adjust the curriculum to the needs of the child, improve professional relationships, and evaluate the effectiveness of the total school program.

A preview chart depicts visually the material that is presented in each of the twenty chapters. A list of specific suggestions for action on the part of the administrative leader appears at the end of each chapter. These two features considerably increase the book's usefulness to the student of education as well as to the busy administrator to whom the suggestions are directed.

The underlying philosophy of the book, however, follows the same pattern as numerous books on public education in which social and civic usefulness seem to be the main purposes of the school. In discussing the agencies of education no mention is made of the Church nor is there any reference to the child's need of moral and religious training throughout this massive volume which in other respects does a commendable task in attempting to outline the role of the administrator as an educational leader.

The reviewer is at variance with the author on another angle. On page 82, without further historical investigation, he accepts the statement: "Late in the seventeenth century John Locke formulated one of the real bases of modern education when he



proposed the *tabula rasa* theory, which for the first time related learning to the experience and activity of the learner." Such a statement is just another indication of the total disregard for the tenets of Scholastic philosophy on the part of many modern writers in the field of education for Saint Thomas Aquinas had put forth the theory that the learner is the active agent in the educative process and in the Aristotelian-Thomistic tradition the mind was looked upon as a *tabula rasa*.

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MEASUREMENT AND EVALUATION FOR THE SECONDARY SCHOOL  
TEACHER by Georgia S. Adams and Theodore L. Torgerson.  
New York: Dryden Press, 1956. Pp. 658. \$5.75.

Here is a thorough book—almost too thorough! It probes into more nooks and crannies of mental measurement than any other single volume of which the reviewer is aware. Its aim throughout is to enable the teacher to deal more effectively with individual differences in every phase of behavior. The treatment is broken into four sections: I, the evaluative process: a general orientation, with coverage of specific criteria for judging mental measurement devices; II, the study of individuals: various areas of measurement are treated, as is the need for a synthesis of data about each student; III, the improvement of instruction: the instructional and curricular uses of test data in each of the several fields; IV, administrative, supervisory, and guidance aspects: over-all planning and execution of a testing program; use of cumulative records, and other items.

The development of each topic is very good, if the frame of reference provided by current eclectic psychology is accepted. The ideas on measurement of achievement tend to be behavioristic; psycho-analytic theory influences the chapter on evaluation of personal-social adjustment; while Gestalt views are visible in the frequent admonitions to take a global, student-centered approach. This absence of any consistent point of departure probably reflects more upon the condition of contemporary psychology



than upon this book. The difficulty is nonetheless serious in this case, because the writers make frequent forays into psychological territory to justify the procedures they recommend.

As textbooks on mental measurement and evaluation go, though, this one is unquestionably "the best I've seen."

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PSYCHOLOGICAL DIAGNOSIS AND COUNSELING IN THE SCHOOLS by  
Stanley S. Marzolf. New York: Henry Holt, 1956. Pp. xiv + 401.  
\$4.00.

The argument of this book is expressed simply: since guidance services and counseling techniques are necessary parts of the educational process, they must aid in the achievement of the broad goals of education, namely, effective and personally satisfying citizenship. Calling upon the wide experience he has gained as director of the Psychological Counseling Service at Illinois Normal University, Dr. Marzolf attempts in this book to provide the student-personnel-worker-in-training with a comprehensive view of the common body of knowledge in guidance techniques and understanding required of personnel workers if they are to assist the school to realize its objectives.

Part I is devoted to a consideration of the foundations of counseling and diagnosis. Attention is first focused upon the numerous examples of personal and social failure in contemporary America and then switched to a description of such fields as psychiatry, social casework, and clinical psychology which have grown and developed in response to the social needs evidenced in the increase in the number of mental disorders, job dissatisfaction, divorces, and the like. The latter portion of this section delves into the evaluative and causative aspects of behavior. Considerable effort is spent in attempting to solve the difficult problems of the meaning of normality and adjustment. Throughout the entire section, Marzolf states that from the personnel point of view there is a strong and unique relationship existing among diagnosis, prediction, and therapy.



Part II is primarily concerned with the practices pertinent to the construction of the case study, which Marzolf sees as an important part of the diagnostic process. Beginning with a list of what should be included in the complete case study, Marzolf goes on to consider various methods of obtaining the required data. Emphasis is placed upon the possible benefits of direct observation by the counselor and the numerous uses that might be made of school records. The section is concluded with a discussion of means of recording interviews and physical measurements.

Part III deals with the relationship that exists between the case study and standardized test scores. The first portion of this part of the book centers around the principles which should guide the personnel worker in his selection and administration of tests. The latter part of the section is comprised in catalogue fashion of an appraisal of all the more widely known devices employed in the major areas of testing—intellectual, educational, vocational, and personality. One is reminded of a miniature mental measurements yearbook.

In Part IV emphasis is on the process of adjustment. In this gather-loose-ends section, Marzolf jumps from remedial teaching to counseling theory to play therapy to group methods. One chapter in this section deserves special comment. "Counseling in Action" is a well-written brief of the dynamics which ensue when client and counselor meet in the conference room. But even in this chapter the reader must be cautioned that the material presented is introductory in depth and outline in scope.

In the opinion of the reviewers, the author set out to perform a quasi-impossible task. In attempting to cover the entire problem of counseling in the schools in a single volume, he failed to give a through treatment to most topics considered. Therein lies the chief fault of this book—superficiality. It may be argued that this book is intended as a guide or an outline. If such is the case, the small number of supplementary readings following each chapter should have been greatly expanded.

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**ALLIED ACTIVITIES IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL** by Louis R. Kilzer, Harold H. Stephenson, and H. Orville Nordberg. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1956. Pp. xi + 357. \$4.50.

With keen insight into the proper terminology the authors of this text have treated allied activities as an essential part of the curriculum of the school. When curriculum is defined as *all* the activities of the child under the direction of the school, it is apparent that all the allied activities of the school must be included. Based on that definition of curriculum and supported by a philosophy of education embracing all the activities of the school, this book examines minutely the various organizations, clubs, societies, athletic and social endeavors of the typical high school curriculum.

The combined experience of the authors presents a wealth of practical suggestions for conducting school activities successfully. Each of the authors has had lengthy experience in teaching and in administration. It is evident that they know whereof they speak. Every aspect of school activity aside from teaching is discussed. The authors do not profess to have all the answers, but teachers and administrators will find the solution to many problems presented cogently and practically. Of particular interest is the chapter on the activities of the homeroom. This phase of the school day has long been a problem and for many an insurmountable problem. The book presents principles for homeroom organization, the functions of the homeroom, and a method for evaluating the activities of the homeroom. In addition to this practical chapter there is presented helpful hints on school clubs, assemblies, school publications, social functions such as dances, parties and receptions, pupil participation in school government, and commencement exercises. At the end of each chapter there is found a list of questions and projects which serve as a complete summary of the chapter and which will be of assistance to those using this book as a text.

The philosophy on which the authors base their theme for the use of allied activities is good but it will be found wanting for the Catholic school. Emphasis is placed on school morale, social



co-operation, self direction by the pupils, and preparation of the pupils for life in a democracy. There is no doubt that these objectives are worthwhile, but it is regrettable that no mention is made of the spiritual or moral development of the pupils. Allied activities of the school can play a major role in this essential aspect of pupil activity.

The authors, however, have something to say that is worthwhile. They have covered the broad field of school activities adequately and succinctly. This book is primarily a textbook and as such may find acceptance most readily among teachers of education. It will be useful for all those connected in any way with secondary education and in particular for those teachers in secondary schools who daily meet the problems discussed, to read this book thoroughly. To these especially it is recommended, and to all who may wish to discover the real role of allied activities in the secondary school of today.

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SOCIAL EDUCATION IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS by Henry J. Otto.  
New York: Rinehart and Company, Inc., 1956. Pp. vi + 493.  
\$5.50.

If *Social Education in Elementary Schools* has become a little too broad and complex in its development, we must repeat with its author that social education is broad and complex. Probably the through-going treatment Otto has given the subject in this single text is due to the fact that he aims it at two groups of readers: laymen or graduate students who wish to become acquainted with the depth of concern which the elementary school has for the social, character, and citizenship education of the children and the many approaches used to achieve that end as well as difficulties and uncertainties in the task; and teachers, administrators, and supervisors who are already familiar with the task and the difficulties but who wish to re-examine current practices and their own thinking. At times, however, the comprehensive treatment is not duly appreciated



for, with the undergraduate or elementary-school teacher in mind, Otto's vivid, detailed description obfuscates the examination being made by the second group. Part One in particular and sections of Part Two treat of current practices in this manner. Part Three furnishes material for the study of problems and issues for curriculum revision and the improvement of teaching. As a text, the book is carefully planned and executed for the chapter summaries, lists of recommended readings, correlated films, as well as suggested student activities are obviously the work of very thorough and recent research.

One of the recurrent issues Otto courageously takes up is that of moral and spiritual objectives in social education. When about to run aground with such statements as "Usually we think of morals as the commonly accepted standards of behavior in a society, which are rooted in the society's conception of what is right and wrong," Otto does not quite manage to skirt the shoals by redirecting his course to a non-committal stream with "Moral values and spiritual values are frequently intermixed . . . . Many religious persons, especially those belonging to certain denominations, find the roots of their morals in their religion." Not quite, we say, for this treatment of religious education seems but lip-service since any mention of spiritual and moral values is omitted in his list of objectives in social education.

Despite what may seem to be harsh criticism of this noted educator, we strongly recommend the book particularly as a text because it has no equal in recent publications for such a complete coverage of the subject; Earl A. Johnson's *Theory and Practice of the Social Studies* analyzes in sociological terms the whole nature of general education in the social studies but it is not directed explicitly to the elementary-school level.

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DICTIONARY OF AMERICAN SYNONYMS by Homer Hagan. New York: Philosophical Library. Pp. ix + 388. \$6.00.

The first atomic decade has now passed, and this book purports to provide journalists, teachers, and writers with a key



to the language of that decade. Here some three thousand current expressions and words, drawn largely from contemporary American publications are presented in alphabetic order with synonyms to which cross reference may be made. The sources of the terms include such magazines as *Time*, *Business Week*, and *Editor and Publisher*, and newspapers like *The New York Times*.

To take an entry at random, "apra"—a political party in Peru advocating agrarian reform, outlaws in 1948—has cross references to "movement," "party," "politics," "reform." Under "movement," then, "apra" may be found along with forty-six other entries, ranging from "American Labor Party" to "rugged individualism." Various semantic developments are noted: "shallacking" may mean: (1) beating of prisoners by police, with cross references to "punishment," "attack"; and (2) to suffer beating or loss, e.g., "to take a shallacking in the stock market," with cross references to "defeat," "loss," "pain," "punishment," and "injury." Other interesting semantic shifts are also recorded: e.g., "rat race" with four different meanings attested: (1) formation of airplanes in maneuver, (2) slang for mounted cavalry, (3) intense chaotic competition, and (4) a dance.

The coining of new words goes on apace, showing the vigorous life of the American language. So "paramedic," a military physician in the paratroopers; "jetomic" for jet-atomic; "cityscape," a painting that emphasizes the appearance of a city or town; new formations by analogical rebuilding of words, as "bookateria," on the basis of cafeteria, sharing certain features of the cafeteria, as "cheeseburger" on the pattern of hamburger.

ROBERT T. MEYER

Department of German and Comparative Philology  
The Catholic University of America.

## BOOKS RECEIVED

### *Educational*

Commission on the English Curriculum of the National Council of Teachers of English. *The English Language Arts in the Secondary School*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc. Pp. 488. \$4.00.



Deuel, Leo (ed.). *The Teacher's Treasure Chest*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc. Pp. 372. \$4.95.

Dobbins, Charles G. (ed.). *Expanding Resources for College Teaching*. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education. Pp. 137. \$1.50.

Doyle, Henry Grattan. "The Modern Foreign Languages: A Chronicle of Achievement" (Reprinted from *The Modern Language Journal*, XL, 6 [October, 1956]). Pp. 28.

Franciscan Educational Conference. *Nature—The Mirror of God*. Chicago: Franciscan Herald Press. Pp. 269. \$3.50.

Giese, Vincent J. *Patterns for Teenagers*. Chicago: Fides Publishers. Pp. 139. \$3.50.

Giles, H. Harry. *Education and Human Motivation*. New York: Philosophical Library. Pp. 108. \$3.00.

Houle, Cyril O., and Nelson, Charles A. *The University, the Citizen, and World Affairs*. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education. Pp. 179. \$3.00.

Lambert, Richard D., and Bressler, Marvin. *Indian Students on an American Campus*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press. Pp. 122. \$3.00.

Lovejoy, Clarence E. *Lovejoy's College Guide*. New York: Simon and Schuster. Pp. 266. \$3.95 cloth; \$1.95 paper.

Pei, Mario. *Language for Everyone*. New York: Devin-Adair Co. Pp. 340. 5.00.

Sokolich, Alexander F. *Canonical Provisions for Universities and Colleges*. Canon Law Studies, No. 373. Washington, D.C.: Catholic University of America Press. Pp. 180. \$2.00.

Van Engen, Henry, and Gibb, E. Glenadine. *General Mental Functions Associated with Division*. Cedar Falls, Iowa: Iowa State Teachers College. Pp. 181.

Wiggins, Urban C. *Property Laws of the State of Ohio Affecting the Church*. Canon Law Studies, No. 367. Washington, D.C.: Catholic University of America Press. Pp. 140. \$2.00.

#### General

Anthony, B. *The Secret Key*. New York: Paulist Press. Pp. 32. \$0.10.



Connolly, Donald F.X. *Twenty Questions about the Priesthood*. New York: Paulist Press. Pp. 28. \$0.10.

Daniel-Rops. *The Book of Life: The Story of the New Testament*. Translated by Donal O'Kelly. New York: P.J. Kenedy and Sons. Pp. 154. \$3.75.

Dooley, Lester M. *Hello Halo!* Techny, Ill.: Divine Word Publications. Pp. 121. \$0.50.

Esty, Jane and Lett, Paul. *Seven Spiders*. New York: Mutiny Press. Pp. 14. \$0.50.

Fecher, Vincent J. *The Biggest Deal*. A Pamphlet for Boys. Techny, Ill.: Divine Word Publications. Pp. 32.

Harkins, William E. *Dictionary of Russian Literature*. New York: Philosophical Library. Pp. 439. \$10.00.

Lynch, Mother Helen M. *On Wings of Love for Youth and the Young of Heart*. New York: Paulist Press. Pp. 46. \$0.15.

McCann, William R. *A Little Guide for Beginners in the Catholic Faith*. New York: Paulist Press. Pp. 31. \$0.10.

*The New Ritual—Liturgy and Social Order*. Proceedings of Worcester Liturgical Week, 1955. Elsberry, Mo.: The Liturgical Conference. Pp. 212. \$2.00.

*Paperbound Books in Print*. Fall-Winter 1956. New York: R.R. Bowker Co. Pp. 152. \$2.00.

Pius XII, Pope. *The Movies and the Nature of Man*. Washington, D.C.: The Pope Speaks Magazine. Pp. 27. \$0.25.

Putz, Louis J. (ed.). *The Catholic Church, U.S.A.* Chicago: Fides Publishers Association. Pp. 415. \$5.95.

Shea, Leo M. *The Family Rosary Novena*. Minneapolis: Catholic Art Services, Inc. Pp. 34.

Weiser, S.J., Francis X. *Religious Customs in the Family*. Collegeville, Minn.: Liturgical Press. Pp. 96. \$0.25.

Winick, Charles. *Dictionary of Anthropology*. New York: Philosophical Library. Pp. 579. \$10.00.



## NEWS OF PRODUCTS AND SERVICES

### HUMAN EVOLUTION—1956

*Human Evolution—1956*, with Appendix, *The Present Catholic Attitude Towards Evolution*, by Rev. J. Franklin Ewing, J.S., Ph.D., Professor of Physical Anthropology at Fordham, has just been published. This authoritative article should be of particular interest to all Catholic students and educators. Order from: *Anthropological Quarterly*. The Catholic University of America Press, Washington 17, D.C.

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New career guidance help in the form of an attractive 16-page booklet, just published by the Royal Typewriter Company, is now available to young students who are trying to decide whether or not they should pursue a secretarial course. This booklet, *You... As A Secretary*, covers the "specifics" of secretarial work in its various aspects. Copies are available without charge to guidance directors and business education departments for distribution to students interested in a secretarial career. Requests should be directed to: *School Dept., Royal Typewriter Co., Port Chester, N.Y.*

### JUVENILE COURTSHIPS

The article on *Juvenile Courtships*, which appeared in the March 1955 edition of *The American Ecclesiastical Review*, has now undergone its sixth reprinting. This educational article was written by the Very Reverend Francis J. Connell, C.S.S.R., of the Department of Sacred Theology, The Catholic University of America. Write to: *The American Ecclesiastical Review*, 620 Michigan Ave., N.E., Washington 17, D.C.

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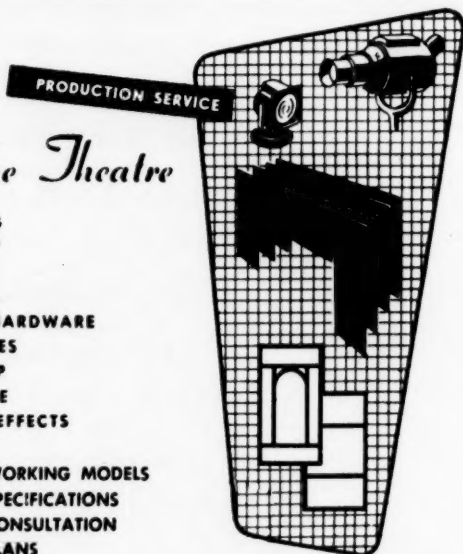
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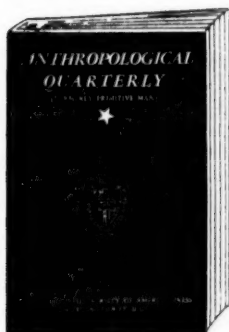
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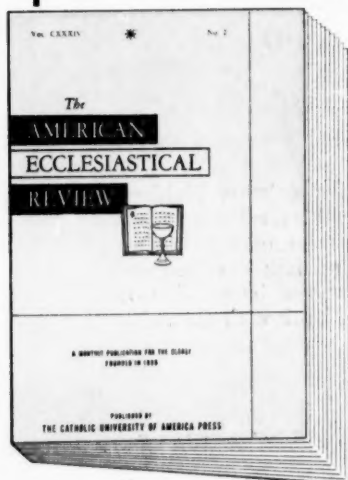
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